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GENERAL SIR ARTHUR CURRIE

Commander of the Canadian forces on the Western Front.

CANADA'S SONS AND GREAT BRITAIN IN THE WORLD WAR

A complete and authentic history of the commanding part played by Canada and the British Empire in the World's Greatest War

By COL. GEORGE G. NASMITH, C.M.G.
CANADIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE
Author of "On the Fringe of the Great Fight"

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
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INTRODUCTION

By General Sir Arthur W. Currie

Commander of the Canadian Corps

To write a foreword for a book all the chapters of which one has not had an opportunity of reading seems a departure from one of the principles which has guided one's conduct since leaving Canada in September, 1914. But when asked to do so by the author I gladly acceded to his request, for I know him to be a true Canadian and one who has played a gallant part in the recent struggle.

To me, it seems a good thing that soldiers like Colonel George Nasmith, C.M.G., should record what they themselves have seen on the battlefields of France and Flanders. Because it is almost impossible to recover the spirit of past years, official histories, though correct in fact, often lack the personal touch of the eye-witness. I therefore welcome this work, and confidently recommend it to the Canadian public.

As Commander of the Canadian Corps the temptation is strong to take this opportunity to recount some of its doings, and to give an appreciation of the value of those achievements. But this is not the time nor the place to follow that inclination, rather let me attempt an appreciation of the man who made for the Canadian Corps whatever reputation it enjoys, the man whom the Germans liked the least and feared the most—the Canadian soldier.

The gathering together as a fighting force of so many men from Canada, and the comparison of these men with other soldiers on the battlefields of Europe have impressed upon us the realization that a Canadian type of manhood has been evolved, by virtue of the admixture of races, the influence of environment, and the manner of life in our home-land.

Canadians derive their parentage chiefly from the Scotch, the Irish, the English, and the French, and while they have in-

herited traits from every one of these races, yet they are quite distinct from them all.

All Canadians are pioneers themselves, or are the immediate descendants of pioneers. Most of them have gained for themselves, or have inherited those indelible signs with which nature graces the bodies and souls of those who have pitted their will, their strength, and their determination against her elemental forces and have earned for themselves a portion of her riches. The life of a Canadian pioneer, be it that of a woodsman, a prospector, a hunter or a settler upon the land, calls forth and demands brains, mettle and brawn. If the rewards are, as a rule, generous, the difficulties to be overcome are many, and none but the brave, the patient, and the strong can survive them. The severities of our climate eliminate the unfit, while the incessant activities of the community either reject or correct the lazy. Thus we see in operation through various agencies, and in their moral and physical aspects, the laws of selection. The operation of those natural laws have already resulted in the creation or the segregation of a race of men approximating a particular type, with distinct moral, physical and intellectual characteristics.

The rugged strength of the Canadian is depicted in his broad shoulders, deep chest and strong, clean-cut limbs. His eyes are keen and steady, while behind the calm gravity of his mien lies a tenacious and indomitable will. These are the invaluable gifts of our deep forests and lofty mountains, of our rolling plains and our great waterways, and of the clear light of our Northern skies, gifts which have enabled the Canadian to adapt himself readily and well to the new conditions he found confronting him as a soldier. In the vigour of their bodies and the strength of their character we find the secret of their endurance to the dreadful sufferings and hardships of the earliest days of warfare, when the trenches were most primitive, and the comforts almost nil. I recall that the First Canadian division was in the line continuously for fifteen months from May, 1915, to August, 1916. And a greater demand still was made on these qualities of endurance in the last hundred days of the war when, fighting bitterly every day for every foot of ground against almost fifty German divisions, they penetrated the German defensive organizations to a depth exceeding in the

aggregate one hundred and fifty-five thousand yards, captured nearly thirty-two thousand prisoners, more than six hundred and twenty pieces of artillery and thousands of machine guns.

Wide awake, and full of intelligent initiative, we see them engaging early in daring night patrols, models of hunting craft. To them there was no No Man's Land. What is usually called such was ours, and regarded merely as an outpost of our fixed position. Later they initiated the daring cutting-out raids, which were soon to become a feature of trench warfare.

Their thirst for accurate information, for maps, for models, for aeroplane photos and sketches of their front was most striking, and what good use they made of this information! In the preparation of trench-to-trench attacks it was an interesting as well as an inspiring sight to see junior officers, N. C. O.'s and men gathered together about the models and maps of the area to be attacked, studying these and discussing the details of the operation, and often as a result of these discussions suggesting modifications of the original plan, which I on many occasions was only too pleased to accept. All these officers and men were soon to go over the top. Some of them would be killed, many wounded, but they were not giving a thought to this aspect of the situation. They were engrossed in their task, enamoured with the technique of their art, their minds were concentrated on the operation, and in the working out of the details which were to secure them such striking success.

Death had for them no peril. Our men could give lessons of stoicism to Roman soldiers. A little incident well illustrates their attitude in this respect. It was during the battle of the Somme in August, 1916. Many of the readers of this volume will recall the headquarters dug-out in the cemetery near Pozières. In front of the entrance to this dug-out a runner had been killed early in the morning. He had been buried up to the waist by the shell, the upper part of his body stood up and the head was leaning forward. Runners were constantly arriving from the front line with information. On entering headquarters they had to pass this body, that of their chum they all knew, and whom anybody could see they liked. Each took a good look at him and with the remark: "Hello, poor Jim! Bad luck!" passed on. The shelling

was heavy and the machine-gun fire most violent. The same fate might soon overtake any of these runners, for death faced them all, yet that fact left them undisturbed. What mattered at the moment was their job, nothing else; and I pray you, gentle reader, do not believe that these men were callous. There was more tenderness in their hearts than words can tell. One cannot forget that at any time any man would gladly, freely and voluntarily risk his life to bring in a wounded comrade. Our records are full of such deeds, and if Victoria Crosses were given in this war for the saving of human life at the risk of one's own, Canadian soldiers could boast ten times the sixty-four they now so proudly wear.

Selfishness was unknown to our soldiers, even when suffering bitterly. Once, during the heavy fighting in June, 1916, at Mount Sorrel, a man had his back cut up by machine-gun bullets, another had passed through his shoulder, while still another was lodged in his knee. He considered himself a walking case, and unaided, started limping back under heavy shell-fire to the dressing station two miles in the rear. He had been walking for over two hours, and still had half a mile to go, when he was overtaken by an officer who bade him remain where he was while a stretcher would be sent for him. He declined the offer, and, though bleeding profusely and suffering agony at every step, he suggested that the stretcher be used instead to carry another wounded man who had collapsed some few hundred yards farther up the trench. For himself, he would continue to walk, and hoped to have sufficient strength to reach his destination. Can you imagine what this meant, and what a heart of pure gold that man had? But even better examples of unselfishness and self-sacrifice have come to my notice. I remember the case of a corporal in charge of a patrol of six men operating near Farbus Wood during the battle of Vimy Ridge in April, 1917. They were pinned to the ground by machine-gun fire. To move meant almost certain death, yet it was necessary that the information they had secured should be reported as soon as possible to battalion headquarters. The corporal sacrificed himself in cold blood in order to do his duty, and to save his comrades. He said to them: "I am going to move away in that direction. When they see me and start sprinkling, you beat it."

The men got away; the message reached headquarters; but the corporal lies buried near an old gun emplacement on the eastern slope of Vimy Ridge.

The results achieved by our men are sufficient testimony to their great bravery, yet Canadians would be the last to claim that they possessed this quality in a greater degree than other troops. Thank God, the war has proved that the "guts" are still in the British race, otherwise, it might well be that we at this moment would not be dictating the terms of peace. I cannot refrain, though, from telling you of the superhuman deed of Sergeant Hugh Cairns, late of the Forty-sixth battalion, Saskatchewan regiment. He was recommended for and awarded the Victoria Cross for most conspicuous bravery before Valenciennes on November 1, 1918. When a machine gun opened fire on his platoon, without a moment's hesitation, Sergeant Cairns seized a Lewis gun, and single-handed, in the face of direct fire, rushed the post, killed the crew of five and captured the gun. A little later the line was again held up by machine-gun fire. Sergeant Cairns again rushed forward and alone killed twelve of the enemy, captured eighteen prisoners and two machine guns. Here he was wounded in the shoulder.

Subsequently, when the advance was again held up, by the fire of machine guns and field guns, he led a small party to outflank them, killed many and forced about fifty to surrender. Here were captured a number of machine guns and five field guns. After consolidation he ascertained that a battle patrol was pushing out to exploit Marly. It came on a yard filled with Germans. The officer in charge of the patrol, Sergeant Cairns, with his Lewis gun, and two others broke open the door and entered the yard, Sergeant Cairns firing his machine gun from the hip. About sixty Germans threw up their hands. Their officer passed in front of them, and when close to Cairns shot the latter through the body with his revolver. He sank to his knees but again opened fire with his machine gun. The fighting became general, the enemy picking up their arms and opening fire. Sergeant Cairns was shot through the wrist, but he continued firing inflicting heavy casualties. A moment later the butt of his gun was smashed by enemy bullets and he collapsed from weakness and loss of blood. The officer and one of the other men held the enemy at bay, while the other com-

rades dragged Sergeant Cairns from the yard. Others of the patrol came up, and, placing him on a door attempted to get him away. The enemy opened fire on this stretcher party, killing one man and again wounding Cairns. By this time more of the patrol had joined in the fighting, and what was left of the sixty Germans in the yard were forced to surrender. As the record says, "throughout the operation he showed the highest degree of valour, and his leadership greatly contributed to the success of the attack. He died on November 2d from wounds."

Let me give one more example. The conduct of Captain Learmouth of the Second battalion was first brought to my notice at the battle of Fresnoy on the morning of May 3d. Our men had to form up in the very exposed ground between Arleux and Fresnoy. The shelling was extremely heavy and only those who have waited for the zero hour in a heavily shelled area know the tension that existed. In order to set an example to his men, Learmouth knelt and prayed to the God of Battles in whom men have more than ever learned to put their trust. Learmouth took part with his battalion again in the fighting at Hill 70. In one of the innumerable counter-attacks delivered by the enemy, our men faced for the first time liquid fire. Men began to retire. Jumping on the parapet, Learmouth shouted, "Second Battalion, we hold this trench for Canada. Not a man must leave." With his revolver he shot down the leading attackers. Standing on the parapet he hurled bombs at the enemy and drove them back, himself catching and returning bombs that were thrown at him. He was badly wounded and fell back into the trench. His men wanted to carry him out, but he refused to leave. His men assured him that the trench would be held as long as one of them was alive, for the Second battalion in all the years of the war has never lost an inch of ground nor failed to take an objective. Learmouth fainted, and his comrades carried him out. He revived and recognized that he was near battalion headquarters. He insisted on seeing the battalion commander, reported the situation, what had occurred, and advised as to steps that might be taken to make the position more secure. He again fainted and never recovered consciousness.

In these few paragraphs I have endeavoured to point out some of the salient characteristics of the Canadian soldier. Vigor-

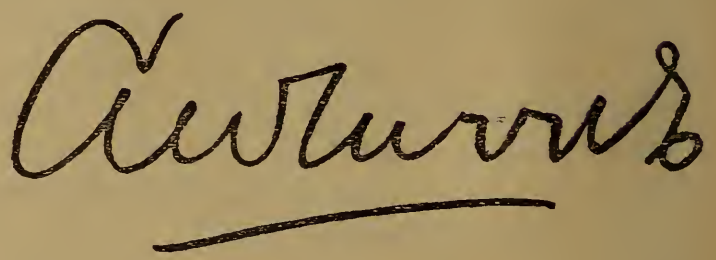
ous, clean-minded, good-humoured, unselfish, intelligent and thorough; not leaving anything to chance; fully imbued with a sense of their responsibility and the determination to win. The qualities distinctive of the race enabled him to become rapidly one of the best soldiers in the field. He is going back now to civil life still possessing these qualities, while having learned in addition the value of well-organized, collective effort, backed by discipline and self-restraint. The change from the indescribable sufferings endured on the battlefields to the normal conditions of life is so great that the mental readjustment necessary may require a little time and make a call on the sympathetic care of the nation, but I have every confidence that the period of transition will be short. Just as readily as the Canadian citizens became well-disciplined, hard-fighting soldiers, just as readily will the Canadian soldiers resume their former status of useful citizens, and their mutual tolerance, broad understanding, and wide outlook on things social and political will be a distinct asset to the Canadian future national life.

Finally, the Canadian soldier is leaving the mother land and going home filled with a deeper appreciation of the might, the majesty, and the power of our empire, more than ever convinced that Britain never unfurls her colours except in the cause of justice and right. Our empire has suffered much, but nobly responding to every call and to every duty, has won through in the good old-fashioned British way.

Besides the material benefits that will accrue on the completion of peace, she has benefited greatly; she has learned to know herself, to know the true value of that sentiment which binds us so closely to the throne. Let us guard well the integrity of the British empire. The Canadians who have been spared in the providence of God are going home to their loved ones better equipped than ever to assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. They are going back to Canada, to that wonderful land of promise and of hope, the cherished land of freedom and a new chance, and as they have cheerfully borne untold hardships and suffering on the field of battle, and forgotten self for their comrades and their empire, I feel that when they return home they will take up their lives where they left off with a broader outlook, a more kindly

humanity, and a truer conception of the things really worth while than ever before.

"Oh Canada, our heritage, our love,
Thy worth we praise, all other lands above.
From sea to sea, throughout thy length
From pole to border land,
At Britain's side whate'er betide
Unflinchingly we stand.
With hearts we sing, God save the King,
God bless our Empire wide, do we implore,
And prosper Canada from shore to shore."



London, May 27, 1919.

KING GEORGE V

King of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India, who struggled earnestly to prevent the war, but when Germany attacked Belgium sent the mighty forces of the British Empire to stop the Hun.

CANADIAN GENERALS WHO HELD IMPORTANT COMMANDS

Lt.-Gen. Sir R. E. W. Turner

Maj.-Gen. F. O. W. Loomis — Maj.-Gen. Sir David Watson

Maj.-Gen. L. J. Lipsett

Maj.-Gen. A. C. McDonnell — Maj.-Gen. Sir H. E. Burstall

Maj.-Gen. M. S. Mercer

CONTENTS.

PAGE

INTRODUCTION BY GENERAL SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE . . iii

CHAPTER

I. THE GREAT WORLD WAR

The Breaking Down of the German War Machine—The Warring Nations—Germany's Preparedness—The Great Initial Advantage of a "Nation in Arms"—The Work of the British Grand Fleet—Food and Ships—German Ruthlessness and the Tragedy of War—The Cost of War—The Psychology of Victory—Why Germany Failed 21

II. GERMANY'S JEALOUSY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Underlying Causes of the War—Grandiose Scheme of World Conquest—Social and Industrial Conditions in Germany—Prussian Domination—Germany's Plan to Succeed England on the Seas—The Gospel of Hate, Unreciprocated by Great Britain—Germany Makes Her Opportunity—Declarations of War 32

III. KITCHENER'S ARMY

The Scrap of Paper that Brought Britain into the War—Swift Stroke of the Germans Through Belgium—Kitchener Prophesies a Long War—The Making of a Great Army—The German War Machine and the British Navy Begin Operations 45

IV. THE EMPIRE SPRINGS TO ARMS

England's "Contemptibles" Arrive in France—Conditions in Great Britain—The British Colonies Rally to the Support of the Empire—Canada the First to Respond—Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and India Offer Men and Money—The Effect of the Colonies' Offer Upon the Empire . . . 59

V. CANADA IN WAR TIME

Conditions in the Dominion at the Outbreak of War—Wave of Patriotism Sweeps the Country—Canada's Preparation for War—Sir Robert Borden Leads a United People—Mobilization in Valcartier 76

VI. THE RETREAT FROM MONS

Seventy-five Thousand British Opposed by Two Hundred Thousand Germans—General French Conducts a Successful Fighting Retreat Against Over-

CHAPTER PAGE

whelming Odds—French Government Removes to Bordeaux—Sudden Appearance of the Sixth French Army Confounds Von Kluck—The Battle of the Marne 88

VII. First Canadian Contingent Sails for Europe

In Training at Valcartier—Thirty-three Transports Filled with Canadian Soldiers Cross the Ocean—"To Fight for the Honour of the King and the Empire"—The Great Transport Fleet Reaches Plymouth 99

VIII. Achievements of Russia and Japan

Invasion of East Prussia—Strategy of the Grand Duke—The Russian Campaign—The War in the Far East—Kiao-Chau, Germany's Splendid Fortress in China Taken by Japan 112

IX. The Canadians on Salisbury Plain

Arrival in England—Review by the King—Lord Roberts Addresses the Men—Discomforts of an English Mid-winter—Off to the Front—Battle of the Aisne—The Race for Calais—First Battle of Ypres—Turkey in the War . . 123

X. The Princess Patricia's in Action

The War of Attrition—Canadians Arrive in France—The P. P. C. L. I.'s Under Fire—The Battle of Neuve Chapelle—Canadian Division Moves Northward to the Ypres Salient—Winter Warfare 138

XI. The War at Sea

Bombardment of Defenseless English Towns—The Naval Battle of Dogger Bank—Von Spee Destroys British Squadron—Von Spee's Squadron Destroyed by the British—Germany's Ruthless Submarine Warfare 151

XII. The First Year of War

The Fall of Przemysl—The Naval Bombardment of the Dardanelles—Military Methods of the Combatants—The War in South Africa 160

XIII. Canadians Save the Situation at Ypres

Personal Impressions of the Road from Poperinghe to Ypres—The Salient Where No Birds Sang—Poison Gas—The Ill-Fated City of Ypres—The Second Battle of Ypres in which the "Canadians Saved the Situation"—The Terrible Nature of Modern Warfare 177

CHAPTER PAGE

XIV. The Battles of Festubert and Givenchy

Fighting by the Light of Electric Flash Lamps in the Underground Galleries of the Labyrinth—The Bexhill Redoubt—Festubert and Givenchy Arouse England to the Situation—The Munitions Act 197

XV. Fighting on Many Fronts

Battle of Champagne—The Wonderful Story of Gallipoli—The War in Mesopotamia—The Russian Front—Italy Enters the War—Bulgaria and the Balkans—The Serbian Retreat 207

XVI. Canadian Troops Prove Their Metal

Training the Second Canadian Division—"Plug Street"—Trench Raids—Formation of Third Canadian Division—Hooge and Sanctuary Wood—Battle of the Craters—The Glorious Defence of Verdun—Austrian Attack in Trentino 233

XVII. The Battle of Jutland

German High Sea Fleet and British Grand Fleet Contrasted—Beginning of the Greatest Naval Battle in History—Beatty Fights Against Heavy Odds—Jellicoe's Flotillas in Action—The Fight in the Night—German Warships Steam Home—Losses—Death of Lord Kitchener 250

XVIII. Canadian Corps in the Great Somme Offensive

The Fourth Canadian Division in the Trenches—The Somme, a Tremendous Series of Battles—Second Division Takes Courcelette—The Tanks—Fourth Division Captures Regina Trench—The Russian Front—Rumania . . . 269

XIX. German Methods of Kultur

Atrocities in Belgium and France—Sinking of the *Lusitania*—Zeppelin Raids—Naval Raids—Edith Cavell—Captain Fryatt 282

XX. Canadian Corps Captures Vimy Ridge

The Most Perfectly Organised and Successful Battle of the War—Details of the Secret Preparation—How the Surprise was Sprung—General Byng Commands Victorious Canadians—Recapture of Kut-el-Amara—The Fall of Bagdad . . 298

XXI. Messines Ridge and Passchendaele

The Attack on the Hindenburg Line—Capture of the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge—Lens and Hill 70—Sir Arthur Currie in Command at Passchendaele—Canadian Corps Take Town after Desperate Battle—Fighting on the Italian Front—Sir Julian Byng at Cambrai 309

CHAPTER PAGE

XXII. Keeping Our Canadian Soldiers Fit

Recreation and Relaxation—Y. M. C. A., Salvation Army and Church Army—Leave to Blighty—Baths—The Ubiquitous "Cootie" 332

XXIII. The United States in the War

Germany's U-Boat Campaign Ends America's Neutrality—Congress Formally Accepts the Status of Belligerent—Conscription—Army of 5,000,000 Planned . 341

XXIV. The Russian Revolution

Fall of the Russian Duma—The Czar Abdicates—Kerensky, Kornilov and Lenine—Bolshevism—Russia Out of the War 352

XXV. With Our Backs to the Wall

The First of the Desperate German Drives—The Attack on the Lys Front—The Drive at Paris—Foch in Supreme Command—The Enemy Halted—Italians Decisively Beat Austrians on the Piave River—War Aims . . . 364

XXVI. The Glorious Affair of Zeebrugge

Spirit of Nelson Still Present in British Navy—Intrepid Tars Bottle Up the Enemy's Submarine Base—An Example of Unparalleled Heroism . . . 384

XXVII. The Canadian Auxiliary Services

The Army Service Corps—The Canadian Engineers—Forestry—The Ordnance Service—Signal Corps—Veterinary Corps—Chaplain Service—Postal Corps—Pay and Record Office 393

XXVIII. The Great Allied Drive

The Recovery of Soissons—General Plan of British Operations—Drocourt-Queant Line Captured by Canadian Divisions—Americans Obliterate the St. Mihiel Salient—Havrincourt—Development of the Allied Plan—British Armies Storm the Canal du Nord and Gain Possession of the Whole of the Hindenburg Line—Germans Retreat from Belgium 402

XXIX. From Amiens to Mons with the Canadians

Canadians Fight and Overcome Ten German Divisions in the Battle of Amiens—Battle of Cambrai—Canadians Carry Monchy—Fifty-four Towns and Villages, including Cambrai, Liberated—Canadian Cavalry Rout the Enemy—Mons, the Last Stronghold to Fall—The Remarkable Story of the Canadian Corps in the Final Series of Great Canadian Battles 420

CHAPTER PAGE

XXX. The Collapse of the Enemy

Bulgaria's Surrender—Austria's Defeat—Czecho-Slovaks and Jugo-Slavs Form National Executives—Turkey's Failure—Mesopotamia—The Conquest of the Holy Land 453

XXXI. With the Canadian Airmen

The Eyes of the Army—Spotting the Movement of Troops and Guns—Mapping the Country—Attacking the Enemy—Bombing Raids—Air Reprisals—Canadians and the Royal Air Force 465

XXXII. Britain's Effort History's Marvel

Seven Distinct Campaigns—The British Navy—The Ferry to France—The Home Army—Feeding and Equipping the Allies—Heaviest Fighting Falls on the British 474

XXXIII. Germany Pleads for Peace by Negotiation

Broken, Crushed and Defeated, Germany Begs for Peace Through the President of the United States—Final Allied Blows—Situation on British Front November 11th—Mutiny in the German Navy—Revolution in Berlin 492

XXXIV. The Fall of Kings and Empires

The German Armistice—Flight and Abdication of the Kaiser—Fall of the House of the Hapsburgs—Constantine Finds Haven in Switzerland—Ferdinand Steps Down as King of Bulgaria—Surrender of the German Fleet . . . 503

XXXV. Canada's Official War Record

A Condensed Account of Canada's Splendid Part in the World War, at Home as Well as in the Field 522

XXXVI. The Peace Conference at Paris

The Colossal Task that Awaited Lloyd George and Other Statesmen at the Conclusion of Hostilities—Aspirations of the Victorious Nations—The Withdrawal of Italy 551

XXXVII. The Treaty of Peace and League of Nations

Germany Receives Terms of Peace at Versailles—Summary of the Treaty—Provisions of the League of Nations 561

XXXVIII. The Canadian Army Medical Corps

Warding Off Epidemics—Hospital Trains and Barges—Ambulances and Clearing Stations—The Red Cross—Canadian Dental Corps—A Fine Record of Efficiency 580

CHAPTER PAGE

XXXIX. The Social Upheaval Following the War

Labour Unrest in Great Britain—Spartacan Revolt in Germany—Second Revolution in Hungary—Events in Austria—Bolsheviki Propaganda in Canada—Reconstruction Programmes 591

XL. The Year of Victory

Red-Letter Days—The Order in Which the Various Armistices were Granted—Principal Abdications of the War—How the War Altered the Map of Europe . 604

The War at a Glance 606

PREFACE

The main purpose of writing this book is to give Canadians, in particular, a fair idea of the part that they and the people of the British Empire have played in the great world war recently ended, and to give it its proper relationship to the war as a whole.

The Canadians won the war; so did Britain, France, the United States and the other Allies: no one of them singly, all of them jointly.

The work of each nation was of vital consequence at certain stages of the war, and many times "the war was saved." In that sense the Belgians, by delaying the German army in the first days of the struggle and thereby enabling the French and British armies to mobilize, saved the situation. At the Marne the French, assisted by the British, definitely wrecked the German plan of winning an early victory. The Russians in the east, by their offensive, kept the Allies on the western front from being crushed by sheer weight of numbers. The assistance of Japan in supplying the Russians with munitions and equipment helped that nation to keep its armies in the field when its own supplies were inadequate.

The British at the first Battle of Ypres and the Canadians at the second Battle of Ypres prevented the enemy from winning the Channel ports and bringing about a possibly fatal situation. The Italians broke the Austrian army and put Austria-Hungary out of business. In the last great crisis the Americans undoubtedly turned the tide with their moral and material resources.

And away and above all, the British fleet from the day war was declared made the seas safe, thereby making it possible for land operations to be carried on.

Yet though Canada, like any other country, did not of herself win the war it was generally acknowledged even by the highest British authorities that the Canadian Corps was the most effective fighting machine on the western front. Whenever there was a hard nut to crack the Canadian Corps was almost certain to be called upon to be the hammer. The Canadian Corps took Passchendaele when all other troops had failed to take it. The Canadian

Corps seized the powerful bastion of Vimy Ridge which had cost the lives of thousands of French and British soldiers in futile efforts to capture it. In the great Somme offensive Canadian divisions were given some of the hardest positions to win, and Regina trench, Moquet farm, Zollern redoubt, Hessian trench and Courcelette stand to their credit.

During the great German offensive the Canadian Corps, according to Field Marshal Haig's official report, was kept behind the most vital sector of the British front ready to be thrown into line if a break should occur. During that period the Canadian Corps was humorously called "The Salvation Army."

In the first great offensive of the Allies in July, 1918, the Canadian Corps, in company with the Australian Corps, tore through the German lines in front of Amiens to a depth of 14,000 yards,—the greatest advance ever made in a single day during the war. The Canadian Corps was selected to break the Drocourt-Quéant switch line, considered by the Germans to be impregnable, and in an hour the Canadian boys had swept through that tangled jungle of wire and trenches. The Canadians were given the formidable Hindenburg line to smash and they did it, bursting through it at Cambrai in perhaps the hardest fought battle of the war.

Such was the record which resulted in the Canadian Corps being called "the spear-head of the British army."

With the exception of two sacrifice guns placed in the front trenches at Mt. Sorrel, the Canadians never lost a gun. They never permanently lost a position. During the last two years they were never driven out of a captured position once consolidated and consequently never went backward. These are facts.

The glorious deeds of Canadians in the war need no fulsome praise—"Good wine needs no bush." The plain narrative is sufficient to make one estimate them at their true value, and they should be known and appreciated by every Canadian. With that object in view it has been my pleasant endeavor, during many months of what would have otherwise been a long and tedious convalescence, to set down, in as simple and direct form as possible, the plain story of the deeds of Canada's sons and the British Empire.

CANADA'S SONS AND GREAT BRITAIN IN THE WORLD WAR

CHAPTER I

The Great World War

On November 11, 1918, Germany, on the verge of a crushing defeat, threw up her hands and agreed to an armistice, the terms of which were the most humiliating ever imposed upon a first-class nation. In another ten days Marshal Foch, commander-in-chief of the allied forces, would have been in the position which the Germans had struggled for during four long years—the position of being able to destroy the enemy army. This alone, perhaps, could have taught the battle-loving Prussian the real meaning of war. Everywhere from July, 1918, onward, the allied armies had been successful. In turn the French, the British, the Belgians, the Italians, the Serbs and the Americans had smashed through the German and Austrian lines and beaten down the resistance of German troops, protected by the most elaborate fortifications and ingenious devices that science could devise.

From March till July with her armies re-enforced by tremendous numbers of men and guns, transferred from the disintegrated Russian front, Germany, on the Western front, had driven great wedges into the allied lines. She failed to break through. When it dawned upon the German people that their supreme military effort had failed, German morale also failed.

It was the last great effort of that arrogant people, who had already seen glimpses of the writing in the heavens; who realized that defeated Russia could not be organized as a source of raw material and food, and who saw millions of fresh and eager American troops pouring across the Atlantic to the aid of the Allies. The Germany allies were weakening daily and required that increased support which became more and more difficult to supply. Germany fully realized that this was to be her last opportunity

of obtaining a military decision. She struck and failed, and at the moment she failed the initiative passed from her hands into those of the Allies. Under the leadership of the great French strategist, Foch, our armies struck and struck again until, reeling under the force of repeated blows, Germany's army fell back broken all along the line, and to save itself from utter destruction retired sullenly towards its own border.

DEFYING THE WORLD

When Germany defied the world she summoned to her aid the three autocracies, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. Against these four autocracies twenty-four nations gradually arrayed themselves. At the beginning five nations only, France, Great Britain, Belgium, Russia and Serbia, were united against the German policy. Then as the full meaning of the struggle dawned upon the world, nineteen other nations, one by one, threw in their lot with the Allies so that there were finally twenty-eight nations, representing one and a half billions of people, directly engaged in the gigantic struggle.

Fighting for the Allies were men of every colour, black, white, red and brown. Every religion under the sun was represented, from the ancient Confucianism of the Chinese to the latest development of New Thought. Chinese coolies, Sikhs and Gurkhas from India, Senegalese from Africa, Maories from New Zealand, North American Indians and representatives of almost every climate under the sun rubbed shoulders in Northern France with British guardsmen, Alpine Chasseurs, Highlanders, Australians, Canadians, Portuguese and Americans. Never before in the world's history had so many races come together to fight in a common cause. Never before had a war resolved itself into so many separate campaigns. In China, in Southeast Africa, in Mesopotamia, in Palestine, in Macedonia, in Egypt, in Gallipoli, in Serbia, in Rumania, in Italy, in Russia, in Poland, in East Prussia, in Galicia, in Belgium and in France the war was waged.

Never before had it been possible to carry on war in the air or under the sea. New types of warfare had seriously modified the older methods and both reduced and amplified the reach and striking power of the belligerent nations.

Germany, with her magnificent machine-like army and her civilian population organized on the basis of a "nation in arms" ready to co-operate to the full with the army in event of war; with her tremendous stores of equipment and vast quantities of guns and munitions made at first an admirable showing and for four years won a series of victories. Yet on looking back we see that her very failures to break the allied lines, such as occurred at the Marne and during the first battle of Ypres, were equivalent to great German defeats. For four years she won much territory and yet she was unable to destroy any of the armies of the first-class powers except that of Russia, which melted away through German propaganda and treachery and not from defeat in the field.

THE ODDS WITH GERMANY

All the odds were with Germany; her plan to destroy France, then settle with Russia and finally deal with Great Britain at her leisure was sound in theory but just failed of accomplishment. The unexpected delay caused by the Belgian resistance, the dogged fighting of the British in their retreat from Mons, the lightning strategy of the French at the battle of the Marne and their wonderful recuperative powers were just sufficient, at vital moments, to snatch victory from the Germans when it was almost within their grasp. Above all, the British Grand Fleet steaming silently through the mists of the North Sea, or waiting patiently in our northern harbours, steadily wove the web that was, slowly but surely, to strangle the Central Powers. With the German fleet bottled up, with her merchant ships rotting in German harbours, with the wharves of her great ports overgrown with grass and streets silent, with her exports shut in and her imports shut out, with increasing lack of food, metals, rubber and other necessities, Germany slowly but surely languished.

The last great attempt to achieve a military victory in 1918 was an attempt to break the web which the navy had so steadily woven and which was now choking the very life out of her. With that despairing effort and the refusal of the German navy to meet the British fleet the end was inevitable and possibly would have occurred within a few months without a military decision.

At the opening of the war the superiority of Germany and

Austria in numbers of effectives and material was overwhelming. A year after war had begun she was manufacturing one hundred times as many high explosives as England. From the moment war was decided upon, the Civil Government of Germany virtually ceased to exist; the country was under martial law; every man, woman, child, mine, factory, railroad or store was at the practical disposition of the military authorities. There was no need for the Government to consider the opinions of the people as was the case in democracies. Germany had no further worries about a great many things. Her mercantile marine for example had gone out of business, the result of the "inactivity" of the British Grand Fleet. The German navy was in the same condition.

The Fatherland was relieved of all responsibilities regarding her colonies and the attendant problems of supplying them with troops and munitions. Her foreign commerce was off her hands. She had not allowed any previous engagements, understandings, conventions or moral scruples to interfere at any time with her freedom of action.

Perhaps most important of all, Germany was seated in the centre of the sphere of action with her appliances of war all about her and a network of strategic railways reaching out in all directions to her enemies' borders. She was able with an incalculable saving, as compared with her opponents, of time, labour, risk and expense to concentrate troops at this point, withdraw them from that, and send with despatch artillery, ammunition, troops and supplies as conditions demanded them from any one section of front to any other. The Allies working around the circumference of that circle, in countries devoid of strategic railway systems, were at a tremendous disadvantage from the very beginning. Only the skill and inventions of the Allies were able to overcome these initial handicaps at a tremendous cost of labour, material, men and money.

BEHIND THE LINES

The war was not decided upon the battlefield alone. Every patriotic civilian in the allied countries of Europe as well as America who endeavoured to produce more food and do without unnecessary luxuries helped to win the war. During one phase it was the food which we grew and the food which we saved in America

which carried the allied people through a period of threatened starvation.

The German submarines came very close to their objective of starving Great Britain, France and Italy by sinking food-laden ships from America. The U-boats were conquered by a margin that was very narrow.

THE COST OF WAR

The heaviest cost in proportion to population and losses sustained in national wealth through devastation by war was undoubtedly borne by the nations that were first invaded and bore the heaviest shock and destruction of battle. These were Poland, Serbia, France and Belgium. The losses of Poland are unknown, but must have been enormous, for that ancient battle-ground was harried and laid waste during successive German retreats. France, with a population of 40,000,000, suffered 4,500,000 casualties and lost 1,400,000 in killed. It was estimated that 250,000 houses in France were destroyed and that destruction of property amounted to $13,000,000,000. Belgium, with a population of 8,000,000, had a casualty list of 100,000, with 30,000 killed. Her monetary losses due to German military occupation amounted to $1,400,000,000. Russia had a casualty list of 9,150,000, with a loss of 1,700,000 in killed and 2,500,000 prisoners. The British Isles, with a population of 60,000,000 including the population of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Newfoundland, had a casualty list of 3,089,757, of which almost 1,000,000 were killed and missing. Of the British colonies Canada, with a population of 8,000,000, sustained 254,000 casualties, of which 54,000 were killed or missing. These are included in the total of British losses. The United States, with a population of 100,000,000, sustained 236,117 casualties, of which 50,000 were killed or missing. Germany sustained 6,066,769 casualties. Austria had some 5,000,000 casualties.

The cost of the war to Great Britain was $52,000,000,000; the total allied claims for indemnities amounted to $120,000,000,000.

THE SILENCE OF THE BATTLEFIELD

But no account of cost either in deaths, wounds or gold can convey any adequate idea of what war is or what German brutality

has accomplished. The battlefield, even when the living have gone, is in itself terrible and terrifying. Even its silence can convey to the spectator some real idea of the horror of war.

From Ypres to Noyon, a distance of one hundred miles, there exists the most appalling desert, fifteen to fifty miles in width. In a land where before the war nearly 3,000,000 Belgian and French people lived there is nothing: villages, forests, shade and fruit trees, shrubs, hedges and buildings are all gone. Of a town or village there remain a few mounds of broken masonry and formless heaps of brick and débris sometimes blackened with charred ashes.

Standing upon any slight elevation you will see a land so torn with shell fire that it resembles a skeleton. Endless rows of rusty barbed wire, great shell holes, crumbling dug-outs and thousands of crosses which themselves are beginning to tumble over, cover the landscape as far as the eye can see. It is a monstrous waste without a survivor, without a single habitation, without a tree. Where there had been fertile fields, happy people and smiling villages nothing remains but desolation, tragic beyond expression.

In the shell-torn flats of the Ypres salient alone nearly half a million men lie,—men who had blocked the road to Calais. Between Ypres and the Somme in the land which holds no living thing one and a half million dead lie sleeping. This desert was not caused by battle, it was the deliberate cold-blooded purpose of Hindenburg and the German army to create that desert. With the thoroughness with which Hindenburg laid waste Poland in his retreat before the Grand Duke the thing was done in France. Villages were destroyed, everything living was cut down and every inanimate thing blown up, while the civilian population was driven away to die or be sustained by the bread of neutrals. Thus did the Germans deliberately create a desert in France, a desert sown with unexploded shells and the débris of battles, and planted with innumerable unexploded mines and booby traps.

The Lens coal mining region, which annually produced 15,000,000 tons of coal, the greater part of the French supply, is an area of razed houses and splintered beams. Machinery which could not be moved was smashed and the mines flooded. Every house was dynamited, and utter ruin prevails in that region which is a key to the industry of France.

Looms, of which there were hundreds of thousands in the little villages and hamlets of the invaded regions of France and Belgium, were carried away or deliberately destroyed, so that when the war was over the French and Belgian people would be unable to work and Germany would obtain a great lead in the industrial war to come. Such were the results of war in a country invaded by Germany. Such were the results produced by the deliberate destruction of a brutalized people whose degraded minds had adopted the belief that force alone must win.

The war cost the world altogether some 33,000,000 casualties, of which approximately 7,500,000 are dead.

For four years the Germans had successfully withstood the whole civilized world arraigned against them. In spite of inferiority in numbers and resources they were able to add victory after victory to their astonishing record. At the beginning they were superior to the Allies in the number of men and their perfect organization. After the first year, realizing that they had reached their climax in numbers and must steadily decrease while the allied forces must increase, they concentrated upon their resources of science and industry. They produced a tremendous preponderance of artillery, machine guns and shells designed to keep the man-power of the Allies at bay and destroy it while they conserved their own decreasing man-power. They had implicit faith in their superiority and in the belief of their invincibility. In arms and leadership their morale was sustained.

LEADERSHIP PASSES TO ALLIES

In July, 1918, Foch was able to demonstrate to the German masses that the superiority of leadership had passed definitely and permanently to allied arms. They knew that the advantage which they had enjoyed for four years had been snatched from them and their cause had become hopeless. That was the beginning of the end and the decline was swift.

The complete breakdown of the morale of Germany is a dramatic episode in the history of modern times and bordered on the sensational. Only four months before the end the allied cause was in the greatest danger and it required all the fortitude and faith of the allied peoples to carry on. The critics predicted that by midsummer of 1919 with the coming of 4,000,000 Americans

the tide would turn and the war would end within at least two years. The mathematical exactitude of the critics in the estimation of bayonets, guns and available reserves was impressive.

BY FAITH THE WAR WAS WON

The psychic element as a decisive factor did not make any appeal to them, for it was not believed that psychic element could stand against machine guns. Nevertheless the complete breakdown of the German home front before the military front was decisively crushed was the final factor. The German home front broke down because it was inferior psychically to the allied home front.

It was faith that won the great war for the Allies. As soon as the Germans believed that they were not going to win the war they went to pieces, and the Allies, who all along believed that victory must eventually be theirs, went over them like a steam-roller. The best critics believed that from a purely military standpoint the Allies were due to win the war in late 1919 or early 1920. The break in the German morale and the strengthening of our own through America coming into the arena shortened the war by at least one year. It was a fine demonstration of the fact that he who takes into account only material forces will never reach correct results.

The allied morale and the German morale are spoken of as though similar, yet they are so unlike that the difference between them has gone far to win the war.

There are two elements that constitute morale, the belief that one's cause is just and that right cannot be defeated, and the knowledge that one has superiority of arms and cannot be defeated. The dominating factor in allied morale was faith in the righteousness of their cause; the belief in their military superiority being secondary.

In German morale the dominating factor was belief in their military superiority; faith in the justice of their cause was a secondary consideration. In either case the crushing of the dominating element in the national morale would rapidly result in a crumbling of resistance. If the Allies were brought to believe that they were wrong morally they could not go on fighting, no matter how much they believed in their military superiority. If the Germans were convinced that they could not win the war

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MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH

Generalissimo of the Allied Forces in the Great War from March, 1918.

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ONE OF THE PROUDEST MOMENTS IN THE WAR FOR CANADA'S HEROIC TROOPS

General Sir Arthur Currie, Commander of the Canadian Corps, taking the salute of the troops at the solemn parade held in the main square of Mons on November 11, 1918, at the hour when, by the terms of the armistice, the "Cease Fire" put an end to hostilities on all fronts. On his left is the general commanding the division of Canadians that recaptured the town.

they could not go on, no matter how much they believed in the justice of their cause.

In defeat the allied morale was stubborn and inflexible because no amount of force could destroy faith in the justice of their cause. German morale gave way because it required but a slight preponderance of force to destroy faith in their military superiority. That is precisely what happened to German morale in July, 1918.

THE PASSING OF GERMAN KULTUR

The question is often asked, "Was it worth while; was not the cost too great?" There can be no second answer to that. With the destruction of autocracy and the blight of militarism removed; with the passing of German Kultur and all that the German menace implied; with the spread of new ideas as to liberty throughout the earth, and with the increased opportunities that will be afforded to the people at large to become better educated, and obtain their just share of material comfort and happiness, the world has undoubtedly made a gigantic step forward and entered upon a new era of progress.

Germany had woven a legend as to her invincibility which she almost succeeded in forcing the world to believe. She made her own people during many long years hate and despise France and England. Yet when she precipitated the war she knew that hate, even to a German, had not a strong enough appeal and invented the fable that she had been attacked and was waging the warfare in defence of The Fatherland.

Above all, believing in material more than in spiritual forces she laboriously and with infinite patience builded a war machine that could not fail. And this superb military machine did fail when it was confronted with those other forces, call them spiritual if you will, which the Allies possessed,—belief in the righteousness of their cause; that justice should not perish; that might was not necessarily right; that utter extinction was preferable to existence under the rule of a people whose every principle of national ethics, morality and justice was wrong.

CHAPTER II

Germany's Jealousy of Great Britain

The underlying causes responsible for the World War are even yet not perfectly understood. Years must elapse before these causes can be fully comprehended and the future historian with all the facts, data and memoirs yet to be written views the whole in perspective, and pieces together the scattered bits of evidence. Then only will the true be separated from the false and opinion sifted from fact.

The incident at Sarajevo was only the match which kindled the great conflagration. The material for it had long been in course of preparation. When the time was opportune the murder in the Balkans served as the necessary excuse—the chance spark destined to set the whole world ablaze and snuff out the lives of 7,500,000 men.

The evidence at hand, nevertheless, is overwhelming in establishing the fact that Germany for at least thirty years had been deliberately preparing for war and was, at the end, directly responsible for it. Bismarck had by a series of master-strokes consolidated the numerous German principalities into the German Empire under the domination of Prussia. He had, by his final victorious campaign against France in 1870, proved to the satisfaction of the German people that war pays. This belief created by Bismarck, and carefully nurtured by the Prussian military caste, was bound sooner or later to prove itself.

The huge indemnity exacted from France in 1870 had been used to foster German industry and the German nation gradually emerged from a condition of poverty. Her people were both industrious and frugal and the national wealth of Germany in consequence grew rapidly. Gradually also she built up a gigantic merchant marine to carry her export goods to the four quarters of the globe. As her wealth grew she increased her military strength until it became the most powerful in Europe. Her universities also became famous for scientific research, and attracted thousands

of students from civilized countries all over the world. Though Wagner and Kant were the last of their kind and no successors had arisen from a great mass of mediocrities to take their places, their traditions persisted, and no musician or philosopher in America thought his studies complete until he had spent at least one year in The Fatherland. The word "German" became a sort of fetish when applied to anything save cheap manufactured goods, for the German Government had learned the art of advertising and assiduously published the superior qualities of the German mind and German goods the world over.

German professors worked for ridiculously small pay; their work was more to them than money and it was honoured. A Herr Professor in a German university took second place only to a lieutenant in the Imperial army or navy. They were excellent plodding academicians, capable of painstaking, laborious work which sometimes resulted in a discovery such as that of Ehrlich, when, after six hundred and six chemical experiments, he lit upon a cure for a hitherto incurable disease—a cure which was immediately patented and resulted in another great German industry. It was noteworthy that no German scientist gave his discoveries to the world to alleviate human suffering as had the immortal Pasteur of France. German scientific discoveries were always patented and capitalized.

When the German Empire was born in the time of Bismarck most of the mental products that Germany had been famed for disappeared. Goethe, Schiller, Beethoven and many of the great masters of music, literature, philosophy and history had been the subjects of the smaller principalities which went to make up the new German Empire. After 1870, in art, literature and in the realms of pure thought, Germany steadily declined. She became content with mediocrities; she had turned her face towards material things and materialism invaded every phase of German life and character.

Bismarck in 1862 said: "The great questions are to be settled, not by speeches and 'majority resolutions,' but by blood and iron." In that speech Bismarck tried to establish the principle that force was more powerful than ideas, a lie that countless ages has disproved. The phrase "Might makes right" became the watchword of official modern Germany.

Nietzsche, a mystic poet and philosopher of Polish origin, who himself despised the Germans, taught that to be great the superman power is the only thing worth seeking, and that to attain this end all means are justifiable. He despised the morality of Christianity as something suitable for slaves only. The doctrine of Nietzsche that might may be right, combined with the materialistic thought of the teachers of modern German schools, resulted in a frame of mind suitable for the reception of teachings like those of Treitschke, the historian.

Treitschke taught that war was the great cleansing process for a nation, that true religion was the religion of valour, and that the absence of war would convert humanity into races of selfish nonentities. His teachings were not allied to religion and soon the new German school sank into a coarse materialism. The "magnificent blonde beast, avidly rampant for spoil and victory," became the national idea. Commercial success, militarism and a Kaiser who assumed himself to be the chosen instrument of God, and a philosophy divorced from ethics, united to foster in Germany a wonderful national self-satisfaction and an inordinate national ambition, with force as the accepted ideal, and the methods and ideals of the army saturating the whole national life. The army came to be all-powerful in Germany and the Prussian military class became the real governing caste.

The Prussians, a mixture of Slav, Teuton and Finn, are unimaginative people with a wonderful ability for organization. Everything is worked out by them according to plan and in the building up of German commerce, their education system and their army, they, as the dominating race, toiled ceaselessly and produced such marvellous results that success made them drunk.

The governing class of Germany came, in the opinion of the world, to be centred in the great German General Staff, and the methods of the army became the methods of the nation. Both the army and the nation were drilled to work and obey. The nation thought as the autocratic powers dictated it should think. The press, the pulpit, the educational system, and even the universities all became agents in the great task of making the varied constituent nations of the empire think as one. These teachings all inculcated the belief that the German people was the super-

race, that sooner or later this super-nation would be compelled to assert itself and make a bid for world domination.

As a great industrial power Germany had come to realize her need for colonies to produce supplies and raw material for her manufactures, and, looking about, she saw that most of the countries worth while had already been pre-empted. Few lands remained that other nations had not already taken; wherever she turned she found Britain and France before her, and she began to realize that the only way to the position she coveted would be over the prostrate bodies of one or other of these nations. Emperor Wilhelm became more and more obsessed with the ambition to transform the German Empire from a continental to a world power and, with that objective ever before him, steadily pursued the policy which he expected would finally give Germany world domination.

The acquisition and retention of colonies by any power nowadays demands a navy, and in the year 1900 the first navy bill of Germany was brought forward. Taking advantage of successive waves of anglophobia, Germany voted great sums of money, and by 1914 had succeeded in building up a navy second only to that of Great Britain among the navies of the world. In the same year she increased her peace strength to 870,000 which placed her easily above any other military nation in the world.

But as her own strength grew Germany saw her opportunities of obtaining a place in the sun by peaceful means steadily decreasing. The world looked askance at her steady development in military and sea power, and as a consequence the Triple Entente in Europe became an alliance.

The *Contemporary Review* of April, 1892, contained an article entitled "Wilhelm" which created some stir at that time. It was supposed to have been written by one of Bismarck's camp and is briefly summarized as follows:

Long before he had come to the throne the character of Prince Wilhelm had excited exceptional curiosity and an amount of sympathy for his well-known defect, a withered arm. Great things were prophesied for him by some. On the other hand he had not long left the University of Bonn when it was whispered that he was a man of little heart, of inordinate vanity and capable of great want of consideration for others, though all these qualities were dwarfed by an ever-present restlessness. Wilhelm, to learn

statecraft, was placed for a time under a high administrative official who called him a "modern being," meaning a superficial individual who loved noisy notoriety. The fear spread in Germany that the ultimate consequences of the Emperor's departure from Bismarck's foreign policy would prove disastrous. Little public expression of this was heard because the press of Germany does not fill the same position as that of England in giving the full voice to public opinion, and patriotism instinctively silences many who fear to discuss what they feel they are powerless to change. The Emperor's intellectual stock-in-trade was said to consist mainly of the gift of quickly grasping the outward aspect of many things. Thus he pretended a species of plausible affectation for literature, but reading had been to him for years a physical impossibility, for all of his time had been filled up with hunting parties, yachting, torpedo boat trips, railway journeys, festive banquets, christenings, weddings, military manœuvres and similar efforts. His shallow brilliancy and his position produced a glamour which sufficed for the time to dazzle and incite the admiration of many like the enthusiastic reporter who wrote home after being the Emperor's guest at manœuvres "that another Frederick the Great was the least that the world had to expect," forgetting that these showy gifts are ever, except in such rare cases as that of Napoleon, the almost infallible signs of superficiality.

Perhaps the most ominous joint product of the Emperor's vanity and superficiality combined was the megalomania which he seemed to be developing at an alarming rate. This megalomania showed itself in a diseased estimate of the relative proportion of things, and caused the deepest anxiety in Germany, because it was feared that it would lead to some irreparable want of tact and then to war. It was argued that, vanity being at the bottom of it all, the Emperor would thirst for a premature immortality. Unable to gain it by peaceful methods, his restless nervous irritability would degenerate into a recklessness which would blind him to danger and lead to war. The danger of this was apparent when we know that the Prussian military party in Berlin was eager for an early war with Russia and was strongly optimistic as to its probable results. Doubts were expressed with regard to the qualities of heart of the Emperor. It was believed that he was endowed with as much heart as his vanity left room for,—of the

emotional surface variety. He possessed an exaggerated boisterous bonhomie which was typical of his superficial, praise-loving, egotistical nature.

Referring to the necessity of controlling egotism, the article said: "It is a fight which not only the German Emperor, but each of us, must wage if he would conquer the spirit of crass self-advertising egotism which more or less pervades our time."

Bismarck said of this article: "Whoever wrote it knew what he was writing about, for what it states is true."

A few years ago Whitman set down his personal experiences of changes which had gradually come over Germany in the previous twenty-five years. He did not believe that any one man, even though the Emperor, was responsible for the stupendous development and change of Germany. The whole country had gone back on the tenets of thought and conduct of its past. One serious German periodical stated that the ideals of Goethe, dominant fifty years ago, were not held by two thousand Germans of the present day.

But Whitman held that, though an autocrat could not originate the hallucination of a whole people, he could act as a centre of infection when there was a predisposition to the disease. The readiness of the German nation to become infected with ill-digested ideas from above he thought due to the parvenu character of latter-day Germany. Through that channel it was possible for the Emperor to exert a pernicious influence upon the German people of which he was a faithful mirror and exponent. His passion for military parades and theatrical situations was symptomatic of this Emperor who reflected the surface flotsam and jetsam of the nation with little thought or knowledge of the deeper impulses of the soul of the nation.

Knowing well the bent of the Emperor's mind, which had long been one of envy and jealousy of England, it had become an unconscious habit with those who wished to retain his favour to minister thereto, and this applied from Marshal Von Bieberstein to Bülow.

In Emperor Wilhelm, Germany possessed a ruler after her own heart. In 1890 he dropped the old pilot Bismarck and became his own adviser. A man of immense energy, he assumed all knowledge to be his province. His adventures in scholarship, art and

theology were viewed with amusement outside of Germany, but his highly impressionable mind registered every wave of feeling of his people, and he was believed to put into garish rhetorical speech what his people desired to think. The Kaiser did not direct but, rather, reflected German opinion. He was the product of his people.

It was common knowledge that for many years Germany, intoxicated by her success in war and by her increase of wealth, had regarded the British Empire with eyes of jealousy and hatred. She had no reason for so doing. With all their malevolence Germans could never give an example of a bad turn done them until their deliberate policy had forced the British people into antagonism.

That Germans hated the British with a most bitter hatred, was repeatedly shown in their literature and in their press. Sometimes, as at the time of the Jameson raid, it flared up into outspoken bitterness. In the United Kingdom the feeling was in no way reciprocated. Two events occurred, however, which made the easy-going Briton look more intently and enquiringly at his distant cousin over the water. Those two events were the Boer War and the building of the German fleet.. The first showed the ugly disposition which Germany had to do the British people mischief, and the second made them realize that she was forging the weapon with which that mischief was to be accomplished.

It was an open boast that Germany would succeed Great Britain upon the seas. The Kaiser in a message to the Russian Czar pompously said: "The Admiral of the Atlantic greets the Admiral of the Pacific." The British recognized the situation and the Entente Cordiale was the answer to the German fleet. "They had discovered their enemy: it became necessary to find their friends." The "splendid isolation" of the Victorian period was no longer possible, and the Entente became a reality. King Edward, by his personal ability, probably accomplished more than any government in bringing together the coterie of nations that ended the dangerous situation for his empire.

Casting about her and sizing up the situation about the time the Kiel Canal was being completed, it seemed to Germany that her opportunity was almost at hand. Great Britain, engaged in socialistic reform, with a rebellion imminent in Ireland, and labour unrest general throughout the country, appeared to Germany a ramshackle nation whose colonies would fall away on the first

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H. R. H. THE PRINCE OF WALES

Inspecting a Canadian Machine Gun Battalion on the Valenciennes front. The Prince is seen talking to a company sergeant-major.

Photo from Press Illustrating Service.

THE KIEL CANAL

German battleship *Prince Henry* passing through the canal connecting Kiel and Wilhelmshaven, which served as an outlet to the North Sea or the Baltic. This waterway was internationalized under the Peace Treaty.

signs of war. France seemed in her eyes to be decadent; Russia had not fully recovered from her war with Japan, though she was making wonderful strides in reform and building up a remodelled army system. Germany feared the great Slav Empire of Russia and distrusted the new signs of her awakening to her potentialities.

There were also internal reasons in Germany for going to war. The swashbuckling of the army officer and the fear inspired by him began to pall upon the German civilian. In the town of Zabern in Alsace in 1913 a German lieutenant cut a lame cobbler over the head with his sword because the cobbler had failed to salute. The officer was sentenced, then acquitted, but the popular indignation which occurred in the Reichstag in consequence thereof resounded throughout Germany and was not lost upon the great general staff. The taxes for the army and navy were becoming very onerous and the nation could not be expected to tolerate them indefinitely. Socialism, apparently antipatriotic in character, had grown to tremendous proportions in Germany. The results of German industry and German efficiency were impressive, but German business was constructed on a basis of credit; as long as the machinery kept going everything was all right, but, should there be a sudden halt, such as that occasioned by a general strike, the result might prove disastrous.

In 1914 the Kiel Canal was finished, permitting the German fleet to pass at will from the Baltic into the North Sea. Several years before a British admiral is said to have stated that war would probably occur in the year in which the Kiel Canal was finished.

Taking all things into consideration it seemed to Germany that her hour was about to strike; that "The Day" was nigh at hand. A short and successful war, as in 1870, would bring again into the German war chest huge indemnities that would pay the cost of her great war organization and set the nation permanently on a solid financial basis. She would take from prostrate France the colonies she desired and put an end to the Russian peril for some time to come. Then at her leisure, with her coffers refilled, her navy enlarged and a great triumph behind her she would deal with the rest of the world at her convenience. Germany was crowded for room and had to expand.

It was a grandiose scheme of world conquest and, according to German psychology, impossible of failure. She was thoroughly

prepared for war. She would strike down France with the full weight of her army, while Austria held Russia in check. Then, with France prostrate she would turn to Russia and with Austrian and Turkish aid would destroy the Russian giant. With these antagonists removed from the arena she would be in a splendid position to deal with Great Britain and the United States, and eliminate two of the great forces that stood in her way to world domination. It was the British fleet that blocked Germany's progress on every side and the Monroe Doctrine which prevented her schemes of aggrandizement in South America.

Over a long period of years Germany had been accumulating information in every country under the sun upon every conceivable subject, and considered herself to be familiar with the situation in every country. She had reduced treachery to a fine art. France, Russia, Great Britain, Italy and the United States particularly were honeycombed with spies. What could not be accomplished by force it was confidently hoped would be brought about by treason. It was a great plan and even today, viewed in retrospect, it looks as though it should have proved successful, it was so logical. But it is the unexpected that always dislocates the best-laid plans. Germany did not count on Belgian resistance nor on Britain's entrance into the war; she did not count on Russia's ability to mobilize her army so rapidly; she did not count on Italy and the United States ultimately throwing in their lot with the Allies.

On June 28, 1914, in the city of Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was murdered while driving through the streets. That was the spark that set fire to the powder magazine of Europe.

Nearly a month later, on July 23d, the Austro-Hungarian Government presented its demands to Serbia, demands designed ostensibly to make a recurrence of such an act on the part of Serbia impossible. The Austrian Note, which startled the government of every country in Europe, except Germany, embodied a number of drastic demands upon Serbia. The complete acceptance of the note meant that Serbia must yield her independent nationality and come under the domination of Austria.

The German ambassadors in London, Paris, and St. Petersburg announced that Germany approved of the substance and form of the Austrian Note. Serbia refused to submit to the demands of Austria

and called upon Russia, who advised her to accede to all but the two demands which referred to her autonomy, and to have these two demands referred to the Hague Tribunal. This request was refused by Austria, and the Austro-Hungarian minister, demanding his passports, left Belgrade on July 28th.

Thereafter followed a week of feverish diplomatic effort to prevent war and bring about a settlement. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Secretary, laboured ceaselessly to the last moment to maintain peace and to establish the honesty of British purpose in the eyes of the world. France and Italy agreed to a conference in London to mediate in the Austro-Serbian quarrel. Germany refused. Thereafter events marched rapidly.

On July 28th Austria declared war on Serbia and bombarded Belgrade. Belgium had ordered mobilization. Germany had recalled her High Seas Fleet and the concentration of the British fleet was proceeding.

Russia had also ordered partial mobilization. On the same day the German Imperial Chancellor proposed to Great Britain that she should stand aside, allow France to be stripped of her colonies and allow of the violation of Belgian neutrality. Of course these treacherous demands were immediately refused by Great Britain.

On July 31st Germany declared a state of war to exist, issued an ultimatum to Russia, and on August 1st declared war upon her.

On August 3d, Sir Edward Grey made a speech before the British House of Commons on the events which had led up to the war.

On August 4th, upon hearing that German troops were in Belgium, Sir Edward Grey wired the British Ambassador, Sir E. Goschen, to ask that Germany respect Belgium's wishes in regard to neutrality, but no reply was given by Germany. The British Ambassador was handed his passports and shortly afterwards Britain declared war.

The following is a list of the Declarations of War which occurred during the struggle extending from July, 1914, to November, 1918, in the order of their occurrence:

1914		
July	28.	Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.
August	1.	Germany declares war on Russia.
"	3.	Germany declares war on France.

August	4.	Germany at war with Belgium.
"	4.	Great Britain at war with Germany.
"	6.	Austria-Hungary at war with Russia.
"	7.	Montenegro at war with Austria.
"	8.	Serbia at war with Germany.
"	12.	Great Britain at war with Austria-Hungary.
"	23.	Japan at war with Germany.
"	25.	Austria at war with Japan.
"	28.	Austria declares war on Belgium.
November	5.	Great Britain and France declare war on Turkey.

1915

May	23.	Italy declares war on Austria-Hungary.
October	14.	Bulgaria at war with Serbia.
"	15.	Great Britain declares war on Bulgaria.
"	17.	France at war with Bulgaria.
"	19.	Italy and Russia at war with Bulgaria.

1916

March	9.	Germany declares war on Portugal.
"	15.	Austria-Hungary at war with Portugal.
August	27.	Rumania declares war on Austria-Hungary.
"	28.	Italy at war with Germany.
"	28.	Germany at war with Rumania.
"	31.	Bulgaria at war with Rumania.

1917

April	6.	United States declares war on Germany.
"	7.	Cuba and Panama at war with Germany.
"	8.	Austria-Hungary breaks with the United States.
"	20.	Turkey breaks with the United States.
June	18.	Haiti breaks with Germany.
July	22.	Siam at war with Germany and Austria.
August	7.	Liberia at war with Germany.
"	14.	China at war with Germany and Austria-Hungary.
October	6.	Peru and Uruguay break with Germany.
"	26.	Brazil at war with Germany.
December	8.	Ecuador breaks with Germany.
"	10.	Panama at war with Austria-Hungary.
"	11.	United States at war with Austria-Hungary.

1918

February	1.	Argentine breaks off diplomatic relations with Germany.
July	15.	Haiti at war with Germany.

CHAPTER III

Kitchener's Army

It was well known to the student that Germany had been preparing for conquest for thirty years. In April, 1913, a volume published by His Imperial Highness, the German Crown Prince, and dedicated to the Emperor, said:

> It is the holy duty of Germany, above all the other peoples of our old earth, to maintain an army and a fleet ever at the highest point of readiness. Only then, supported by our own good sword, can we preserve the place in the sun which is our due, but which is not voluntarily conceded to us. Certainly diplomacy can and must play its part . . . but just as lightning settles the conflict of the electrical forces in the skies, so the Sword will be the ultimate deciding factor in the world until the world disappears.

In May of the same year the German Government endeavoured to obtain the consent of the Dutch Government for the establishment of a public harbour and works on the New Waterway. The works were to be those of the Vulcan Company controlled by a great German firm of iron and steel interests. This would give Germany the opportunity, on the broad deep channel which gave access to Rotterdam on the northeast, to manipulate Holland and make her subservient to German policies and ambitions.

On June 30th the German Army Bill was finally passed without serious opposition. It gave the German Military Power, which was already the greatest in Europe, an army of 814,000 men on a peace footing and this could be increased by 400,000 men on the very day of mobilization. It was estimated in a report submitted to the Emperor that the total wealth of the nation was seventy-eight billion dollars with an annual income of eleven billion dollars.

Germany believed that England would not enter the war. She knew that there was an utter unreadiness for war in the British Empire except in regard to its naval strength. To Germany there were various and obvious signs of decadence in the British

Isles. Social extravagance, class friction, socialistic propaganda, labour troubles and political bitterness were rampant. There were clear signs of disintegration and civil war in Ireland, of conflict between the military and civil power in England, of friction between the religious forces of the United Kingdom. There were, moreover, in Canada, India and other colonies, difficulties which Germany believed would prevent any immediate aid being given to the empire, even though the colonies should be so inclined.

By her preparations Germany had brought about a situation which was summed up by Count Witte, one of Russia's great statesmen, in the words:

> When and how will it all end? Unless the great states which have set this hideous example agree to call a halt, so to say, and knit their subjects into a pacific unity, European war is the only issue I can perceive, and when I say war, I mean a conflict which will surpass in horror the most brutal conflicts known to human people, and entail distress more widespread and more terrible than living man can realize.

For many years the belief had been quite generally accepted by the British and French staffs that when war did come, Germany would strike at France through Belgium. It was natural, then, that the Belgian country should have proved a favourite study for the staff officers of the allied countries as well as Germany, and, in consequence, every foot of it was known most thoroughly.

For an intelligent understanding of the war on the western front it is important to grasp certain simple facts which make succeeding events understandable and interesting. An invasion of France, to the German commander-in-chief, would be determined by two considerations: the first would be the nature of the path imposed upon him by the configuration of the landscape and the defences of the frontier; the second would be the necessity of obtaining a rapid decision by a blow that would disable the French army.

The French frontier on the east may be divided into three parts: the first, a line from Belfort to Verdun; the second, the line of the Central Meuse; and the third, that of the Belgian border along the line Maubeuge-Valenciennes-Lille. The German armies advancing against France on these three sectors would, of necessity, move with different speeds. In the first sector an army would be held up by the fortress barrier, and in the second

by the difficult nature of the Ardennes. In the third sector only,—that of Belgium,—where the country was open and the antiquated fortresses far apart, would speed be possible. This, then, was likely to be the area through which the Germans would attempt the crushing blow.

The outflanking of the allied left front in France would also give the enemy the best chance of obtaining an immediate decision. To pierce the line elsewhere would be a far more difficult task. Though the German army would advance all along the

GERMANY'S STRATEGIC RAILWAYS

This map of the railways connecting France and Belgium with Russia and Austria, shows how the Germans were able to transfer troops east or west as pressure of the Allies demanded.

front and pin down the French armies, it would be the main object of the German High Command to advance with speed through Belgium, using the Belgian railways to transport the army which was to envelop and crush the allied flank opposed to it.

It is true that there was a treaty signed by Prussia, Russia, England, France and Austria, which guaranteed the inviolability of Belgian territory. This was the "scrap of paper" contemptuously referred to by the German Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg. It was this scrap of paper to which England's signature

was attached that brought Great Britain so quickly into the war.

Not knowing with certainty where the blow would fall, the French had to engage the enemy along the whole front, retire when necessary and attack where any weakness showed itself, meanwhile holding her reserves for the section of front most imperilled. To make sure that France would not be the aggressor, the French army had been everywhere withdrawn to a distance of ten kilometers from the German border. The German High Command asserted that France intended to invade Germany through Belgium, and it was necessary for Germany to forestall this action. This was categorically denied by Belgium and France, but it served the German purpose as an excuse to violate Belgian neutrality.

The German army consisted of twenty-five corps. It was estimated that her total war strength would amount to seven million men, of which four million had served with the colours. Under Bismarck, Von Moltke, Gneisenau and Scharnhorst the German army system had been developed into a perfect machine, its guiding principle being that of a "Nation in Arms." Every male was liable to service from the age of seventeen. The army system was the arbiter of social fashion in Germany and it was the greatest ambition of every middle-class family to save enough money to allow at least one son to become an officer. For the nobility, particularly the Prussian, it was their one and only profession.

The great and efficient German general staff had for years perfected plans to meet every emergency. Her system of espionage was supposed to be perfect and her knowledge of every civilized country was minute in detail. It was believed by the world at large that at the word of the Kaiser, a war machine such as the world had never known would be set in motion,—a wonderful piece of mechanism unlimited in power and perfect in operation.

This belief became a reality when the German armies, clothed in their new grey field uniforms, swept over the German border with the object of seizing Paris and destroying the French army before Russia could enter the arena. The army which was to pass by the River Meuse through Belgium did not count on resistance. The German army had offered to pay for damage resulting from their passage through Belgium and apparently were astonished

FIELD-MARSHAL EARL KITCHENER
British Secretary for War, who built up the British army at the beginning of the war.

FIELD-MARSHAL SIR JOHN D. FRENCH
Commander-in-chief of the British forces in France and Belgium from the beginning of the war to December, 1915.

THE FATE OF A ZEPPELIN RAIDER

Picked out by searchlights and bombarded by "Archies" the death blow was administered by a brave British aviator, who set the raider afire with incendiary bullets.

that their offer had not been accepted. The Belgian troops, hastily mobilized in their various coloured peace uniforms, put up a resistance which both amazed and angered the German people.

Since Germany counted on a swift blow that would destroy the French army before it could be completely mobilized, speed meant everything. An uninterrupted path through Belgium was worth more than an army to Germany. The delay caused by the unexpected Belgian resistance upset the German plans and probably saved France. It also destroyed the legend of Ger-

THE WESTERN BATTLE AREA.
Showing the principal railways, roads, canals and forts from the German frontier to the sea.

many's invincibility, elaborated and repeated to the world during many long years: it proved that sand in the works would destroy the smooth operation of any machine.

On August 7th one German army under Von Kluck reached Liége and laid siege to that fortress which resisted valiantly for ten days. That delay was sufficient to enable France to fully mobilize her army and for the British Expeditionary Force to land in France. Though forts nowadays are not considered to be of much use against modern siege guns and high explosives, yet

the delay caused by investing the Liége fort may have cost Germany the victory which she craved.

On August 7th the French with weak forces invaded Alsace-Lorraine. Their moderate initial success fired the French with great enthusiasm and had considerable political value. The French forces, however, were not strong enough for the purpose, and, suffering reverses, fell back upon the strongly fortified positions on the French frontier.

The rage of Germany, when England decided upon war, was most remarkable. The Kaiser gave instructions to the effect that his armies were to exterminate the treacherous English and to walk over General French's contemptible little army. The British, true to their spirit of humour, seized upon the word "contemptible" as a spur to recruiting, and the phrase became a term of undying appreciation of that glorious army, than which, it has been said, no finer has probably ever taken the field since the time of Cæsar.

On the eastern frontier the first blow was struck on August 3d, and two days later Russian troops crossed into East Prussia. On August 16th the Russian army decisively defeated the Germans at Gumbinnen while General Samsonov defeated another German army at the Masurian Lakes. The sacred soil of East Prussia as far as the Vistula was, for the time, in the hands of the Russians.

On the Galician border the first Austrian army won several successes, but the second Austrian army was being menaced by two Russian armies coming from the north and the east. In the south Serbia was driving the enemy from the borders and with the help of Montenegro was advancing into Bosnia.

Britain's control of the sea during the first two months of the war was so complete that it elicited no comment. The average man expected a series of swift engagements with enemy warships designed to disable the British fleet and obtain more or less control of the sea. But nothing happened,—that is, nothing spectacular; for the truth is Britain maintained her old supremacy of the seas by her swiftness of action and without striking a blow. The German fleet was sealed tightly in her own waters before it could make a move.

Instead of despatching a number of swift cruisers and converted merchantmen to scour the high seas and harry our mercantile

marine, the German admiral played safe. Had the work done by the *Emden* been multiplied a hundredfold we would have lost untold ships, our shipping would have been disorganized, freight rates would have mounted, and our movement of troops been seriously interfered with. But more than all else our fleet would have been seriously reduced in strength by the necessity of despatching fighting ships to run down these raiders. The German admiral fortunately played our game. It would have been possible to send out numerous raiders before war was actually declared, but he employed what he thought to be a far more efficacious and less costly method to destroy our commerce,—the under-water craft.

On August 28th the first important naval action of the war took place off Helgoland. Three submarines, the E6, E7, and E8, were sent in close to Helgoland as a decoy and succeeded in drawing out of hiding some German destroyers and two cruisers. One submarine and two attending cruisers raced towards the open sea while other British destroyer flotillas steamed swiftly down from the north to cut the Germans off. The battle lasted all morning but was finished by the arrival of Admiral Beatty's cruiser squadron, when the remnants of the beaten German fleet fled homewards. In this Battle of the Bight of Helgoland, the Germans lost two new cruisers, the *Mainz* and the *Köln*, and one older cruiser, the *Ariadne*. Another cruiser and seven destroyers were seriously damaged and one destroyer sunk. The Germans lost 700 men in killed and 300 prisoners. Our casualties were 32 killed and not a single ship was lost.

The German admiral was confirmed in his policy of keeping his battleships in harbour.

The British control of the sea thereafter depended not so much on the possession of heavy battleships as on the lesser craft. The German Grand Fleet was to remain idle in its safe retreat behind great mine fields, and in consequence there was to be little use for the heavy British dreadnoughts. Germany's naval activity was devoted chiefly to the use of submarines and mines, while the British were compelled to resort to measures to render these methods futile.

By means of disguised trawlers and tramp ships Germany succeeded in laying mine fields and dropping loose mines in the course of our ships, shortly after war began. As a consequence

the North Sea was closed by Great Britain to neutral ships unless convoyed, while large numbers of trawlers manned by fishermen were employed in mine-sweeping. Two fighting ships only were lost during this period through striking mines.

The German submarines, however, succeeded in sinking the light cruiser *Pathfinder* and the old cruisers, the *Cressy*, *Hague* and *Aboukir* were successfully torpedoed while assisting the first vessel struck. Six hundred and eighty men were lost when these three cruisers sank, and in consequence orders were issued that no fighting ship should stop to assist another that had been torpedoed.

The German cruisers the *Emden* and *Koenigsberg* set out as commerce raiders and managed to destroy a dozen or so British merchantmen before they were rounded up, giving an excellent illustration of what swift commerce raiders in large numbers might have accomplished for The Fatherland.

GREAT BRITAIN PLANS FOR A LONG WAR

It is needless to say that the military equipment of Great Britain in 1914 was on a modest scale. It had not been the custom for generations for her rulers to contemplate being forced to take a great part in a war in Europe, consequently her army was organized on the basis that it must be sufficient for the needs of a widely scattered empire and at the same time be able to provide an expeditionary force of three or four army corps to assist in any large contest that might arise in Europe. The nation as a whole was as one with their leaders in opposition to any attempt to create a great military system and had never supported plans for the creation of greater armaments.

The best answer to those who asserted that Britain had prepared for a European conflict is that no military preparations for such a conflict had been made. A general staff had been created a few years before for the first time in English history. Her territorial forces had also been better organized, but no machinery had been provided for the expansion of the military system to the scale which would be required in a world war. In consequence Great Britain was found with her regular army very little larger than that which she possessed in 1899 before the outbreak of the South African war. The special reserve and terri-

torials, who represented the old militia and volunteers, were actually lower in numbers than their predecessors though superior in organization and efficiency.

The regulars with their reservists who completed the battalions to war strength and the "Special" reserve units, which were to act as feeders to the first line when the reservists were exhausted made up the total of 450,000 men. In addition to this the territorial force which could be employed on foreign service only if the men volunteered for it and which was only partially trained came to about 250,000 more. Of the first line troops over 100,000 were serving in India, Egypt, South Africa and the outlying colonies of the East, consequently the regular units at home were able to put in the field only three army corps and a cavalry division. This was the expeditionary force of 100,000 men on which Britain had always counted.

It was quickly realized in England that from the very nature of the war large numbers of men would be necessary and Parliament authorized an immediate enlistment of half a million men.

On August 8th recruiting was begun when Lord Kitchener arrived in the war office and asked for 100,000 volunteers for three years' service or the duration of the war. These were recruited in two weeks and the rush continued, as many as 30,000 enlisting in one day and 175,000 in the first week of September.

To fill up the existing regular and territorial battalions volunteers would be necessary but it would also be necessary to create innumerable fresh units. Lord Kitchener adopted the scheme of forming from these new units the so-called "New Army" generally known as "Kitchener's Army." It was composed of battalions attributed to the old County and District regiments and numbered on at the end of the existing regular special reserve and territorial battalions. A small and thinly populated county might raise perhaps only two or three service battalions while a large urban district in some cases furnished as many as fifteen or twenty.

At the beginning of August, 1915, two million volunteers had been enlisted for service.

The organizing of this vast multitude presented almost insuperable difficulties. The arsenals of Great Britain had been stored to provide for an army of much less than a million; they

were called upon to furnish weapons and equipment for two million fresh recruits. To supply the tens of thousands of officers necessary seemed almost more hopeless and impossible. The problems of equipping, housing and feeding this new army was scarcely less onerous and difficult.

Great Britain set to work with a will; her pride had been stirred, and though waste and mistaken economy were general enough she somehow managed to provide the necessary equipment, arms and officers for this new force. The whole world was swept for material and a colossal development of her own manufactures took place. Camps composed of huts of timber or iron were erected all over Great Britain. Public buildings were utilized as barracks and the old English expedient of billeting of soldiers in private households was adopted.

The problem of providing 60,000 or 70,000 officers was the most difficult problem of all. To give a man a commission does not make him competent to train or lead a platoon. The problem was solved in several ways. Great Britain had a greater proportion of retired officers of military age than any other country. The regular army had always contained a large number of men of independent means, who, after a few years in the service went back to civil life. The same was the case with the less completely trained but still valuable officers of the special reserve and the territorials.

With the outbreak of war practically everyone of these retired officers or "dugouts" as they were called, placed themselves at the disposal of the state. A second valuable source of supply was the large number of partly trained young officers furnished by the Officers' Training Corps in the universities and public schools. Perhaps most important of all in comparison with other nations Great Britain possessed the largest percentage of raw material from which officers could be made.

These intelligent well-educated men from the so-called upper and middle classes accustomed to responsibility and to using their brains were exceptionally numerous in Great Britain; so numerous were they that a number of battalions of the new army filled with volunteers of such a class had had half of their privates given commissions within the year.

Naturally this system resulted in great variation in efficiency; some units were well-officered, others were not. In consequence

some units were less disciplined and less efficient than others and it required far greater time to get them into the condition necessary to take the field.

In general the territorial first line battalions, because of their superior training, passed over the Channel first and by spring, 1915, divisions of the new Kitchener army were taking their place at the side of the veterans in France.

The old regular army had been able to hold its portion of the allied line until its re-enforcements had been improvised, trained and brought to the front.

Credit must be given to France for holding during that period nine-tenths of the Franco-British front and thereby enabling its ally to exert its maximum effort. So difficult was the situation during that period that three divisions of the Indian Contingent from India had to be brought to Europe to hold the line because every disposable white battalion was already at the front and veteran troops only such as the Indians could be employed with safety.

From the moment when the British people first learned of German atrocities in Belgium the war became a people's war, and its successful prosecution depended thereafter on the rank and file of the nation. The immediate effect of the war was the proclamation of an industrial truce; several serious disputes were at once settled and the railwaymen who had planned a campaign for the autumn put all thought of agitation aside. For some time there was real and unruffled national unity. The working classes enlisted in large numbers all over the Isles and thousands of skilled workers belonging to the indispensable trades passed over to Flanders before the industrial nature of the conflict was understood.

Numberless organizations sprang up all over Great Britain for the purpose of furthering the war in some form or other. V. A. D.'s were trained by the Red Cross and St. John's Ambulances. Hospitals were equipped and offered to the government by the hundreds at home, and scores were equipped to be sent abroad through private philanthropy. About 1,050 private houses were actually accepted by the war office for hospitals. The Red Cross societies all over the empire organized themselves for work and provided vast quantities of hospital supplies and comforts for

wounded soldiers. Other organizations too numerous even to mention sprang up and did admirable service in helping on some phase or other of the work in connection with the efficiency of the army and navy.

The Y. M. C. A., the Church Army and the Salvation Army established huts, tents and equipment both at home and abroad for the purpose of providing centres for men to obtain food and entertainment. This work was undoubtedly of the highest value in helping to maintain the morale of the men.

Clubs and canteens sprang up all over the home country to minister to soldiers returning on leave from the trenches or on holiday from camps. In all of these undertakings women gave practically all of their services gratis and tens of thousands of them laboured night and day in the task of easing the burden of those who were fighting their battles.

CHAPTER IV

The Empire Springs to Arms

The official declaration of war did not commit Great Britain to sending a military force to France, but the French Government counting on military co-operation, as well as the universal opinion of England, made such military co-operation inevitable.

On August 3d the British army was mobilized; on August 4th war was declared by Great Britain; on August 5th Lord Kitchener was appointed Secretary of State for War. On August 6th the House of Commons passed a vote of credit for $500,000,000 and authorized an increase of the army by half a million men.

The railways had been immediately taken over by the Government. The record made in this crisis was an extraordinary one. Every ten minutes, for the first three weeks of the war, from every part of the country a train arrived at the shipside carrying troops and impedimenta.

The embarkation of the British Expeditionary Force began on the night of August 7th and within ten days the whole of the 100,000 men had landed in France. It was strange to note that the British people knew nothing of the despatch of the expeditionary force until it had arrived in France, though reports of the crossing were published in the American press on August 9th. The event was known to the German staff on the same day. For the most part cross-channel steamers were employed to carry the men, while tramp steamers, collected all over the Islands, were used to transport horses, guns and equipment.

Each British soldier was given a short message from Lord Kitchener which summed up the duties of a soldier and established the standard expected of him. It was characteristically British. It emphasized the obligations of the individual as a personal representative of Great Britain and therefore appealed to the highest that was in him. It was indicative of what Great Britain expected her army to live up to, and the high character of its performance upon the lines suggested was typical of the principle of

the British people, just as the performance of the German army in Belgium and elsewhere was representative of a nation which sought to propagate its type of Kultur upon an unappreciative world.

You are ordered abroad as a soldier of the King to help our French comrades against the invasion of a common enemy. You have to perform a task which will need your courage, your energy, your patience.

Remember that the honour of the British army depends on your individual conduct. It will be your duty, not only to set an example of discipline and perfect steadiness under fire, but also to maintain the most friendly relations with those whom you are helping in this struggle. The operations in which you are engaged will, for the most part, take place in a friendly country, and you can do your own country no better service than in showing yourself in France and Belgium in the true character of a British soldier.

Be invariably courteous, considerate, and kind. Never do anything likely to injure or destroy property, and always look upon looting as a disgraceful act. You are sure to meet with a welcome, and to be trusted; your conduct must justify that welcome and that trust. Your duty cannot be done unless your health is sound. So keep constantly on your guard against any excesses. In this new experience you may find temptations in wine and women. You must entirely resist both temptations, and, while treating all women with perfect courtesy, you should avoid any intimacy.

Do your duty bravely.

Fear God.

Honour the King.

KITCHENER, *Field Marshal.*

The British regular army of about 100,000 men crossed the channel to France without the loss of a single ship or a single man. It was a splendid tribute to the completeness of the control of the seas already established by the British navy. This wonderful feat of transportation was carried out without a hitch and the disembarkation and despatch of the British army to the front went on with similar smoothness. It was a hundred years since a British army had landed in France. No spectators or women were allowed, as in past wars, to accompany the expeditionary force from England. The organization to prevent espionage was already working well. Great enthusiasm was aroused among the French by the fine appearance of the men—particularly the Highlanders—and by their kindness to women and children. Legends of the days when Scotchmen were found in large numbers with the French armies were again remembered.

The British army was placed under the general command of General Joffre, the French generalissimo. It was a fortunate thing that neither Sir John French, the chief of the British force, nor General Joffre were jealous men, and harmony between the armies was evident from the beginning.

The Commander-in-Chief of the British army, Sir John French, was considered to be the best man on the active list, and his record had shown exceptional judgment and energy. The two infantry corps were under the command of Sir Douglas Haig and Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien, while the cavalry division was under the command of Major-General Allenby. A third infantry army corps was in process of formation in England under Major-General Pulteney.

On Friday, August 21st, the British army of two infantry corps and one cavalry division had got into position along the line Conde-Mons-Binchy in Belgium which formed the extreme left of the allied front.

Had the Allies been able to advance well into Belgium before the middle of August and join with Belgium's army in holding the Antwerp-Namur line, their position would have been favourable. The only Belgian position now available, however, was the line of the Sambre River which itself depended on whether Namur could hold out. The information available by General Joffre at the time seemed to indicate that only 200,000 Germans were in the Belgian area.

While the Allies, depending on the resistance of Namur, awaited with confidence the German expected frontal attack, that fortress fell.

FROM REVELRY TO WARFARE

When war descended upon humanity in 1914 it clouded a world which was dancing mad. A negro dance seemed to have proved delightful enough to satisfy the artistic sense of the age which demanded nothing finer. The whole world seemed possessed with a frenzy to agitate its feet.

King Edward had died in 1910 and the country had undergone the regulation period of one year of mourning. When it was ended England, particularly London, plunged into a whirl of pleasure. The rich in latter years had become steadily richer;

the poor stayed where they were or got poorer. Strikes disorganized industry. The strikes were settled by paying higher wages and the employers took the extra cost of production from the purchasing public by the simple expedient of raising prices. The British House of Parliament, with a vast Liberal majority, endeavoured to carry out a series of social reforms, somewhat palliative in character, but representing an earnest attempt to alleviate the sufferings of the poor.

A spirit of lawlessness and unrest could be traced to the summer of the coronation. The ostentation of the wealthy undoubtedly fomented the dissatisfaction of the poor. The new money made as the result of the industrial recovery following ten years of depression after the South African war, was often spent in riotous living.

There was the great dispute as to the House of Lords; there were railway, coal, and mercantile marine strikes. The wrangle over Home Rule had resulted in the raising and training of illegal volunteer armies in Ireland. A campaign in female suffrage was marked by violence to person and destruction of property. It seemed as if people had no object in life but pleasure and excitement. Disregard of law by a notoriously law-abiding people who seemed to have become irritable and unstable became a common thing. Socialistic ideas were making great headway among the workers both of hand and brain. The wasters and *nouveau riche* only accentuated this irritation by their irresponsibility, stupid display and waste. Alcohol seemed to gain a greater hold on the nation year by year, dragging it to lower levels of suffering and vice.

War with one gigantic sweep brushed aside all those things of lesser note that had concerned the people of Great Britain. Never had the British nation been so solid for the war. Both political parties were willing to trust to their experts and fight to a finish. There was no hate of Germany; the British people were indignant because of her actions in Belgium and because she had violated all the doctrines that they had been taught to believe.

Very speedily Britain realized her weaknesses. Her military policy which could produce only 160,000 men prepared to take the field in a great crisis was wrong in principle! Too late the words of Lord Roberts, begging the people to prepare for the inevitable

war, were realized to be sound. But providentially the politicians of Great Britain had always shown statesmanship in refusing to interfere with the efficiency of the navy. That had always been rightly held to be the first and main line of defence. Behind that screen, it was agreed that, with a fair share of luck, it would be possible to quickly build up a large volunteer army. So it would have been if there had been a great skeleton army with trained officers, but this did not exist. However, the British under Lord Kitchener with remarkable coolness set to work to make a new army of three million. The territorial system, designed for home defence only, became a volunteer army for overseas. There was no invasion, so that the building up of the vast army was taken quite leisurely.

The initial grave financial crisis was faced, a moratorium established and other measures taken to restore public confidence and safeguard national credit. Outstanding bills of exchange amounting to four hundred million pounds were guaranteed, and in a few weeks so completely had public confidence been established that war loans of three hundred and fifty million pounds were floated.

Great Britain went about her task deliberately, too deliberately many onlookers thought. There was no invading army already pouring across her borders as in France and Belgium to galvanise the country into action. The attitude of the Englishman, as it always has been, was commonly expressed in the phrase: "I suppose we shall blunder through." He believed that France and Russia would hold the German army till the British were ready; he had no realization of the terrible actualities of modern warfare or of the desperate nature of the crisis for civilization and himself. There were not, as in France, hordes of refugees, fleeing from homes devastated by shell fire and the torch, to spread throughout the land to relatives and friends the stories of German atrocities and Hunnish ruthlessness.

The sight of one shell-shattered village will do more to bring home and make clear the nature and meaning of war to one than the most elaborate and graphic description of the most vivid writer.

In France the invaders were but a few score miles from Paris and it was possible to reach the firing line from the capital in a few hours by motor car. In England, a country which had no

history of real invasion for hundreds of years, there was no tradition of ferocious invaders to provide the incentive to stir up a military spirit.

Though Britain's army was small, it had had in various British colonies and protectorates more experience in real fighting than any of the other nations; it was a real professional army. Men joined it because they wanted to.

There was no compulsion, nor was there any universal military training in England. Consequently, recruiting for the new volunteer army was not too rapid because the import of the war was grasped only slowly. With no prospect of an armed invasion Britain could call on men to enlist only for the honour of the empire and her Allies. It was not realized at first, apparently, by the press or the people, that the war was Britain's war almost above all others. The British Empire was to be doomed because it, more than any other nation, had stood in Germany's path and thwarted her scheme for world aggrandizement.

The press censor in those early days when Britain's wonderful little army was winning immortal renown allowed nothing of the glorious deeds of the army to pass. Even the names of regiments, famous to conjure with, were seldom mentioned, and the wonderful stimulus which would have resulted by the recording of their deeds of valor was deliberately abandoned.

The use of the press as a publicity agent was forgotten. The employment of martial music and bands was also abandoned and one of the most useful stimulations of recruiting known deliberately put aside. To be sure, the country from end to end was plastered with posters calling for recruits, but they were naked appeals; there was no appeal to the imagination in any of them.

The national slogan at the time was also peculiar. "Business as usual" may have some claims under certain conditions, but it seemed to a spectator to indicate that the country was quite capable of carrying on the war as a side line. The feeling that business was not be disturbed was symptomatic of the moment; four years later the whole business of the nation practically was concentrated upon the one aim of winning the war. That merely indicated the fact that Britain was at last thoroughly wide awake.

Crowds of aliens, mostly Germans and Austrians, who speedily became Dutch, Belgian and Swiss, swarmed over England and did

the work given up by those who enlisted. The public scandal which followed was only quieted by interning a large number of the poorer classes, while the really dangerous wealthy and titled foreigners went free and continued to mingle in society.

Great Britain was an excellent example of how a democracy, admirably fitted for deliberate action and free open discussion of matters pertaining to the social and political welfare of the country, might be quite unfitted for rapid, aggressive action in time of peril. An autocracy, which could order this or that and knew that it would be done, was far better fitted for carrying on a war, because military efficiency, divorced from political influences, would be made the sole aim. Yet, as we see later, autocracies one by one tumbled to pieces, while the democracies, assuming the nature of oligarchies, carried on to the end.

In spite of all difficulties, the voluntary system was successful to a degree and recruits came forward as fast as they could be equipped and armed. In continental countries which had conscription, preparations were all complete for putting their armies in the field. On mobilization every man knew where to get his uniform, outfit and rifle. In England this was not the case; everything had to be made. It therefore came about that the men who comprehended most and were staunch believers in the Allies' principles were the first to enlist. Recruiters quickly realized that their success depended upon their ability to make the situation clear. The men joined up rapidly enough when they realized that the country and the cause needed them. Kitchener set out to raise an army of three million and two million of them were under arms by June, 1915.

The difficulties of Britain were very great. She had not only to build up her own army and manufacture the equipment for them but she had also to manufacture for her continental Allies. The Belgian army, for example, which had gone to war with every kind and colour of uniform, was outfitted with uniforms made in England. This is a single example of what Britain was called upon to do in larger and larger proportion as the war continued. Naturally this manufacturing called for the use of millions of men and women, and made it very difficult later on to bring in general conscription, where numerous trades engaged in war manufacturing,

promised exemption from military service, had renounced their labour regulations and opposition to dilution of skilled labour.

As it was, the country gradually became aroused to the situation and as its people began to understand it they perceptibly stiffened. Each military reverse on the continent only made them the more determined to see the matter through to the end. Ostentatious pleasure and sport disappeared, the sons of the educated and the nobility were almost the first to don the uniform. Their elders stayed at home, began a thousand different charities, became special constables or did anything that would be of service to the empire. One noted newspaper man I knew spent several nights a week as a look-out for Zeppelins on the roof of St. Paul's Cathedral. Another, a wealthy banker, armed with a powerful telescope, I saw fishing from dawn to dark on the rocks of Devon and watching the Channel; while still another, a university professor, laboured at the alien problem. These were examples of what tens of thousands of elderly Britishers of wealth, education and family were doing to help in the great cause.

Politically the nation was united, the official opposition having joined to support the Government. The threatened civil war in Ireland petered out and each of the belligerent factions sent a division of troops to the front. England was more solidly united in favour of this war than she had been in any other war waged by her in a thousand years.

On September 19, 1914, at Queen's Hall, London, Mr. David Lloyd George, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, made a speech to a crowded house. In an address which proved to be prophetic, he said in part:

> This doctrine of the scrap of paper proclaimed by Berlin, that treaties only bind a nation as long as it is to its interest, goes under the root of all public law. It is the straight road to barbarism . . . and the whole machinery of civilization will break down if this doctrine wins in this war. We are fighting against barbarism . . . The German peasant has been drilled into a false idea of civilization but it is a bad civilization, it is a selfish civilization, it is a material civilization. They cannot comprehend the action of Great Britain at the present moment. They say France we can understand, she is out for vengeance, she is out for territory,—Alsace and Lorraine. They say they can understand Russia, she is fighting for mastery, she wants Galicia; . . . but they cannot understand a great empire pledging its resources, its very existence, to protect

THE FIRST BATTLE OF THE MARNE

When the tide of victory turned toward the Allies, hand-to-hand fighting took place in nearly every village as the enemy were driven back. This picture shows a mixed force of British and Turcos driving the boches out of a village in Brie.

A NIGHT ATTACK ON THE WESTERN FRONT

A small outpost in the front line trenches signalling for a barrage with star pistols to head off a German assault.

a little nation that seeks to defend herself. They think we cannot beat them. It will not be easy. It will be a long job, it will be a terrible war, but in the end we shall march through terror to triumph. We shall need all our qualities,—every quality that Britain and her people possess: prudence in counsel, daring in action, tenacity in purpose, courage in defeat, moderation in victory, in all things faith.

I envy you young people your opportunity,—an opportunity that comes only once in many centuries to the children of men. For most generations sacrifice comes in drab and weariness of spirit. It comes to you today, and it comes today to us all, in the form of the glow and the thrill of a great movement for liberty that impels millions throughout Europe to the same noble end. It is a great war for the emancipation of Europe from the thraldom of a military caste which has thrown its shadows upon two generations of men, and is now plunging the world into the midst of bloodshed and death.

The people will gain more by this struggle in all lands than they comprehend at the present moment. It is bringing a new outlook for all classes. We can see for the first time the fundamental things that matter in life and that have been obscured from our vision by the tropical growth of prosperity. We have been too comfortable and too indulgent, many perhaps too selfish, and the stern hand of fate has scourged us to an elevation where we can see the great everlasting things that matter for a nation,—Honour, Duty, Patriotism and Sacrifice.

With the mobilization of the British Expeditionary Force the United Kingdom set out to organize its full powers of manhood and material. The British Empire is a loose kind of an aggregation held together by common sympathies and ideals and often quite unconscious of its unity. The aims and objects of the various colonies are ofttimes as varied as their peoples; therefore it is exceedingly difficult to bring about any such definite organization as imperial federation. Throughout the empire there are many dissimilar view-points, often of a most pronounced character, which would make common action at most times difficult. Such a difference of opinion was the decided opposition of British Columbia to allowing the natives of India to emigrate to that province, an opposition which was not understood either in India or Great Britain because it depended largely on a local labour situation.

To onlookers before the war it might seem as though the empire was fast drifting towards dissolution, a view that was held in Germany. It might have seemed to those not of British ancestry that Canada was fast becoming Americanized, not knowing how

deep was the real feeling that separated Canada from her friendly neighbour to the south.

India was commonly supposed to be a powder magazine that a spark would blow into a thousand fragments. South Africa might be expected to seize the opportunity to throw off the British yoke and Ireland was almost in the throes of rebellion.

Germany's idea of empire was a perfectly organized machine. Great Britain believed that an empire was a living thing whose several parts were essential to the growth and well-being of the whole body. The essence of British success in colonizing is that the individual develops an English mind with English ideas of tolerance, freedom and justice. The bond which held the British Empire together was one not understandable to those outside the empire; it was chiefly a spiritual bond.

The German nation stood for all that was meant by the word "efficiency." They placed all the stress on efficiency, rather than character. The British people can be most efficient, but they hate to speak of it. The train from Bristol to London averages fifty-eight and a half miles an hour. Nobody ever speaks of it. The fastest train in America, from New York to Philadelphia, on the Pennsylvania Railroad, averages forty-six miles an hour; but the Pennsylvania Railroad, in an interesting folder, tells you all about it. During the first few months of the war, that is, during the time of the greatest congestion and confusion, not one train carrying troops or supplies in Great Britain, on official schedules, was as much as ten minutes late on arriving at its destination.

In England the whole school system and training is concerned with character. A boy must have character before intelligence, health or education. Each little section of the country has a different character and each little group of people possesses its own individuality. The English passion is for variety. The person is the thing; British achievements are nothing, but British character is everything.

The Englishman has been quite satisfied to pose as the world's champion muddler. Carlyle and Wells and almost every other English author tells the English that they are stupid. Though they have produced more geniuses who have called them fools than any other people in the world, it makes not the slightest dent in their actual self-confidence.

An English paper in 1917 observed, quite coolly and casually, in an editorial, that "Of course brains is not our strong point as a nation;" and then happily went on to the terms of peace to be imposed by a victorious England on a crushed Germany.

The English wallow openly and frankly in their mistakes, stupidity and inefficiency, because their real egotism does not lie that way. They were convinced that Englishmen could in the end beat Germany because they believed that English character is tougher and more enduring than German character. The English became efficient in order to win the war, but they had no real enthusiasm for efficiency.

The English as a people cannot take a glorious or romantic view of war. They are strongly anti-militaristic and averse to bloodshed. Yet the German idea that authority must be obeyed because it is authority has no hold in England, when political or industrial issues come really to the top. For example: The Munitions Act said that strikes must not occur. Nevertheless, 200,000 South Wales coal miners struck, and beat the Government.

The cartoons of Capt. Bruce Bairnsfather were the most popular cartoons published during the war. In the army their weekly appearance was awaited with the greatest interest. Not one of them in any way glorified war; on the contrary the cartoonist took special pleasure in puncturing the glory of war. In the reference to the first collections of Bairnsfather cartoons the editor says: "Will it not be a standing reminder of the ingloriousness of war and of its preposterous absurdity?"

The English do not mention the dead. You may live for weeks with people who have lost close relatives, and the fact will never be mentioned. For such a people there is just one release: outright laughter. There must be no plays about the war. If there must be plays about war they must be about its humours, and so everywhere throughout London during war-time there was practically nothing but revues. Cartoons, paragraphs, sketches and verses were mostly intended to evoke a grin.

The French and Americans must have found the English suddenly gay and even frivolous; but humour was the one thing essential to England and it was their supreme outlet during the great trial. During that time their great watchword was "Carry on." England echoed minute by minute with the

phrase. Thousands of Englishmen had to die; they knew they must and their women knew they must, and they said their deepest when they said "Carry on." It said nothing about the enemy, it said nothing about England; it spoke for the individual. It expressed all the inextinguishable humour, the personal control of pain and loss, the contemptuous disregard of German claims, and reliance on sheer character to find the way to smash the mechanical structure which the Germans had created and called an empire. The Englishman is purely subjective; he is the supreme individual in the midst of a cause which stirred him as he had never before been stirred in his whole history. In the midst of all his troubles, his failures, his bitterness, his depression, and hopes deferred, he looked within and said "Carry on." It was the unconscious expression of the British bulldog spirit and it carried the British Empire through to victory.

The following editorial from the *Republic* of St. Louis, in the United States, written in September, 1914, gives an interesting picture of the British Empire as seen by an outsider. It is called "An Imperial Mystery":

Whenever Germany and France with their highly centralized and logically wrought out governments, have contemplated the fabric known as the British Empire they have smiled smiles of disdain.

If ever there was an instance of "muddling along" through decades and even centuries, taking things for granted, avoiding issues, extemporizing expedients, and working always for the object immediately in view, with scant reference to any principle of outward consistency, it is supplied by the history of the making of the British Empire. This is a strange gathering together of Crown Colonies, Dominions, Protectorates, a Commonwealth, Dependencies—and India. . . . All gradations of self-government may be found in the more than ninety units of the British Empire.

This fearful and wonderful fabric has no central body. There is no "Bundesrath" or Imperial Council. No collective action of its units is possible. The relation to them of the Mother Country is illogical, ill-defined. To the foreigner accustomed to the federation of the American States or of the units of the German Empire the Government looks planless and ineffective.

All of which is preliminary to the observation that there is not at the present moment any more effective institution in the whole world of political fabrics than the British Empire. Whatever its machinery lacks appears to be supplied by its spirit. The defects of its body are made up for by the unity of its soul.

The fact cannot be gainsaid that England who does not begin to be

logical as Germany or as systematic as France, in matters of government, has nevertheless the knack of making men step out of their own free will to die in her defence. She has the gift of keeping alive, across tumbling seas, round half a world, the undying bond that unites the heart to home. She has shown herself indifferent to the possession of taxing power over her colonies—but what matters it? Those colonies willingly tax themselves to send her warships, and their sons seize their rifles in time of strife to come to her aid. She has the wisdom to train and guide the swarthy children of alien races, and even foes of yesteryear, that they put their living bodies between England and England's enemies. She has a fearfully muddled theory of government, but her practice of government lays hold on the deepest things in the soul of man.

As we contemplate this wonder of an empire which is an empire of the spirit, an empire whose philosophy of politics is all wrong, but for whom the costliest things within the gift of man are poured out without stint, we are moved to wonder whether this is a prophecy of the future. Will the states of the coming days make more of the spirit and less of the machine? Will they reck less of constitutions and bills and rights and fabrics of government and more of the invisible things which touch the soul?

We do not want to seem to degrade a high theme; but English plum pudding holds the key to the mystery.

English plum pudding never saw the day when it was worth the eating. It is soggy; it is greasy; it is flavorless; it tastes like a roller composition, compact of glue and molasses, which every country printer owns. . . Yet English plum pudding is eaten on Christmas not only from Land's End to John o' Groat's House, but in Manitoba, in Khartoum, in the sides of the Himalayas, under the orange groves of New Zealand, where December is June, and in the blistering humidity of the Straits Settlements. Why? We cannot tell. But eaten it is. And English hearts, from London to Melbourne and back again, answer to the strains of "God rest you, merry gentlemen," and English eyes grow dim with happy tears.

The British Empire is unscientific. It is unreasonable. But it is mighty, with the greatness of the soul.

CANADA FIRST TO OFFER HELP

The response of the empire was astounding, even to the empire itself. From every quarter, from every land which flew the British flag, there poured to the motherland offers and appeals to help. It evoked an emotion such as no event had ever produced in the history of the United Kingdom.

The first of the colonies to offer help was Canada, who, through her Minister of Militia, General Hughes, cabled, on August 1st,

an offer of a division of twenty thousand men. In rapid succession the colonies made similar offers which were all accepted in the spirit which prompted them.

Australia, in the words of her Premier, Mr. Fisher, was ready to support Great Britain with her last man and her last shilling, her navy was placed at the disposal of the British Government, and she offered a division and a light-horse brigade.

New Zealand offered 8,000 men. South Africa offered men and organized an expedition under General Botha against German Southwest Africa. It was a remarkable tribute to the empire that many old Boer officers and men travelled to London to enlist against the foes of the country of which they themselves had been mortal enemies fifteen years before.

The smaller colonies which could not send troops sent supplies. From the Barbadoes, the Falklands, the Windward and Leeward Islands came gifts of money. Ceylon sent tea, British Guiana and Mauritius sent sugar, South Africa sent corn, Australia sent butter, bacon, condensed milk and beef, Canada sent one million bags of flour as well as oats, coal, cheese, potatoes, tinned salmon, and horses. India gave huge sums of money, horses, camels, jewels, ambulances and men.

The action of India particularly thrilled the whole empire and upset one of the many factors in the German calculations. India, with her enormous population of 350,000,000, almost four times that of the United States, was supposed to be seething with suppressed discontent. Made up of many Indian peoples, who, since a century and a half ago, had been one by one brought under the sway of the British Empire, there had been at times more or less discontent among one or other caste. The British people are the greatest nation-builders on the earth, mainly because they rule with impartial justice. This fact the Indian peoples, the oldest and proudest races on earth, recognized. What freedom from constant internecine strife, and fair play, meant to them they fully understood. When the time came they were loyal to a man, for the Englishman had treated them like equals and not "niggers," as the Germans in China had contemptuously called them.

The Indian army sent two infantry divisions and a cavalry brigade to Europe at once. The larger native states offered contingents of cavalry, infantry, sappers and transport which were

accepted. A hospital ship, huge sums of money, thousands of horses and a multitude of other gifts were offered by the various maharajahs of India.

Nationalist agitations disappeared as if by magic and their leaders summoned the country to rally to Britain's aid. Almost every chief offered his services, even to fight in the ranks, and many of them were allowed to accompany the Indian army. This wonderful tribute of India to the empire, and its effect on the British people can better be imagined than described.

The response of the eldest of the colonies was scarcely less thrilling. Canada had always avoided anything that might entangle her in a European war. A few years before she had refused to vote money towards a navy for the protection of her own shores, though New Zealand and Australia had gladly done so. Quebec, which held the balance of power in Canada, had strong leanings towards Nationalism. When the Conservative Government came into power in 1911, the Minister of Militia and Defence, convinced that a war with Germany was soon to come, entered upon a policy of reorganization of the militia and defences of Canada. This policy he forced upon his doubtful colleagues, some of whom were convinced that he was almost crazy on the subject; but the Minister, obsessed with the idea of a war with Germany, insisted on greater and greater appropriations for the building of drill halls, and providing other equipment and material necessary for national defence.

CHAPTER V

Canada in War Time

In 1911 the Conservative Government came into office during a year of abnormal prosperity. Shortly afterwards a season of world-wide financial stringency and universal trade slackening appeared, the periodic recurrence of which seems to be an unsolved mystery. The new Government established a parcels post, improved the mail service between Canada and Great Britain, passed certain bills designed to put Canadian commerce on an improved legal basis and improved the Canadian militia system to a considerable extent.

The activities of the Government met with much criticism throughout the country. The Dominion Grange, for example, meeting in Toronto in January, 1913, wanted reciprocal free trade in natural products between Canada and the United States and an increase in the British preference. It was said "Militarism was fostered and kept before the public by shipbuilders, manufacturers of armament, admirals, generals, colonels, etc., who strut around in gold lace and feathers and look upon the ordinary mortals as if they were made of inferior clay."

The grain growers of Canada wanted a speedy reduction and final abolition of a protective tariff. Pacifists like Dr. Andrews, a professor in the University of Saskatchewan, denounced the Minister of Militia for spending money on drill halls, the Government for proposing expenditure on dreadnoughts and condemned the British navy as an instrument of militarism.

There were troubles of labour, particularly through the flow of emigrants from Central Europe. It is notorious that these people, saturated with anarchism, are difficult to assimilate because they do not approve of modern principles of democracy such as ours. The inferior quality of emigrants coming to America was no longer of the pioneer type but the variety that can be easily exploited. Canada and the United States had unbounded faith in their powers of assimilation, but one that has not been altogether

justified. As a result of this constant inflow of inferior material into the national life there is bound to be a steady slackening in social progress and a gradual deterioration of popular intelligence through dilution by large numbers of backward emigrants.

Canada is a new country, with both the opportunities for getting rich quickly and the temptations and numerous evils arising therefrom. One's status in society was largely gauged by the amount of money one possessed. Consequently many people became indifferent to the rights of others and climbed the ladder of success by means often dishonourable. Speculative cunning as a means of accumulating wealth rapidly was honoured just as much as the thoroughgoing honourable methods of our ancestors.

The ignorant foreigner was preyed on by the cupidity of business men and his ignorance was made use of by the politician to match his vote against those of better citizens and exclude the latter in the control of local government. In the year ending March, 1913, there were 400,000 emigrants to Canada, of these 150,000 were British, 139,000 Americans and 112,000 Continental Europeans. The emigrant blood imported by our captains of industry through well-known and well-established channels was chiefly drained from the lower strata of Europe, below standard physically, intellectually and morally.

Many observers were puzzled or critical about the backward tendency they noted in social morals as indicated by the kind of song, dress and dance most popular. The average American song was drivel, if not worse, the modes of dress were about as indecent as they had been in many centuries, while cabaret shows, afternoon dances with turkey trots, tangos and grizzly bears were the rage.

Short-haired women and long-haired men declaimed on practical eugenics as the one and only cure for all social ills.

Strikes became very numerous. Mr. Crowther, the Minister of Labour at Winnipeg, said, on July 3, 1913, "We have a great country with boundless resources and we want intelligent and industrious emigrants to come to this country, and we cannot have too many of them. It is the large influx of money by immigration that is causing prosperity."

During the big mining strike in British Columbia with its

accompanying riots the Victoria *Colonist* of August said: "It is very clear that steps will have to be taken to prevent the interference of alien agitators in the industrial affairs of Canada. What has happened is practically that the organization known as the United Mine Workers of America have declared war against our institutions. The possibility of the repetition of such a state of things must be prevented, even if very drastic means have to be resorted to."

At a labour mass meeting held in Vancouver on August 21st, most violent speeches were made, in which one United Mine official from the United States declared that any man allowing his sons to join the army or navy was a traitor to his country.

Other labour troubles occurred during the year amongst the Fraser River fishermen, and amongst C. N. R. workmen at Lillooet in November.

The financial stringency in Canada was supposed to be due to some extent to over-speculation, an evil from which the country was suffering. A large proportion of the people had been making easy money by selling things, bought not for use, but for speculative purposes.

An English financier expressed the view that small but ambitious towns of less than 100,000 population were too much inclined to run into debt. In their eagerness to build cities, officials of these smaller municipalities, frequently backed up by the citizens, became extravagant in local improvements, bond issue following bond issue in rapid succession to provide funds for public institutions and improvements which were not only far in advance of their real needs, but were very expensive, luxurious and a great burden to the taxpayer.

These improvements made times good and money plentiful while in course of construction; in the depression which inevitably followed, serious financial difficulties were encountered by those who had to meet the civic obligations. Sir Max Aitken stated quite frankly that Canadian municipalities and provinces had been over-borrowing and must wait until the effects had worn away.

Public opinion accepted the situation as one of necessary reaction and recuperation. The condition which was at once the cause and result of the general situation was that of building

operations. With the money tightness came reduced construction, upon which followed unemployment, lessened circulation of money and civic depression. One of the most depressing factors of the business situation was the inactivity of the larger industries of the Dominion.

The cost of living in Canada was steadily mounting before the war; one of the reasons declared was that high wages paid in towns took farm boys and girls to the city, consequently there was reduced production on the farm and the products of the farm increased in value. Peter McArthur stated in the press, in October, 1913, that farmers could no longer hire help at a rate that left it possible for them to make farming pay. He also stated that the high cost of living was not due to the rise in the price of foodstuffs but rather to the demands of fashion, costly houses, home furnishings, decorations and entertainments.

In Canada the cost of living had increased from 1900 to 1911 by fifty-one per cent.

A journalist viewing the press from the inside said, "What is the great indictment against the newspaper of today? It is insincerity. There are two ways of explaining this insincerity. One is to say that the newspaper, run for some owner's individual profit, must depend for its success upon its circulation; its acceptance by the masses or, at least, by a large portion of the reading public. It leaves the impression that the actual editors and reporters are a lot of conscious liars. The actual fact is that we are far more degraded than that. We are a lot of unconscious liars. We do not even care about the truth. All we care about is the 'story'—the special side of the story which we think our paper wants—when we begin to 'root' for something other than our own convictions, our convictions take flight. I killed my conscience during my first year of newspaper work."

Upon declaration of war there was no publicly expressed difference of opinion as to Canada's duty and obligation. It was acknowledged that her obligations were those of a young virile nation whose leaders were convinced that the war about to be fought by Great Britain was for the maintenance of the liberty of the world. As the weeks passed the conviction, previously held by a few, that British institutions and British ideals hung in the balance and would forever perish should the forces of militarism

and autocracy prevail, became general throughout the land. In a country like Canada, free from war for more than a century, it was natural there should be some who found it hard to realize the situation. Peace with many had become almost a religion. Organizations to maintain the peace of the world had been highly popular, and speakers like Goldwin Smith, Norman Angell, Carnegie and J. A. MacDonald were always certain of large audiences and a sympathetic hearing.

Sir Wilfred Laurier, the leader of French Canada, had always kept free from anything that would necessitate the Dominion coming to the assistance of Great Britain in case of war. The national sentiment of Quebec was strong and the farming population of Canada was unsympathetic to any expenditure on the army or navy.

The arguments commonly advanced by peace propagandists like Angell were that we could not possibly have war because the banking associations would refuse loans; that it was to the interest of commercial men of the world to preserve peace; that the working men of the world by strikes would prevent war, and that a group of nations could by commercial boycott bring the refractory nation to time. Many articles were written on this theme in the press. The wave of pacificism seemed to increase steadily up to the very month of the war.

On the other hand MacPhail of McGill University, Mavor and Hutton of Toronto and many others vigorously preached the danger of pacificism in the face of German armament, and advocated a strong British navy and adequate military defences. The chief exponent of the vigorous school of national defence advocates was Colonel Hughes, who, most fortunately, happened to be Minister of Militia and Defence at the moment.

THE OUTBREAK OF WAR IN CANADA

The regular forces of Canada at the beginning of the war consisted of 3,000 men, while the active militia consisted of about 47,000 officers and men.

An offer of a division was immediately cabled to Great Britain and accepted and the call issued for 20,000 men was answered with an enthusiasm which had rarely, if ever, been witnessed in any British colony. In less than a month 40,000 men had volunteered

and the Militia Department was compelled to refuse further recruits.

Wealthy citizens vied with each other in offering equipment and batteries, while large sums were raised to provide for the dependents of those who volunteered.

Public men of Canada offered to help in the way in which they were best fitted. The Leader of the Opposition, Sir Wilfred Laurier, united with the Premier, Sir Robert Borden, and party activity ceased. From the gold-fields of the Yukon and the slopes of Hudson's Bay, from the Rockies on the west to the Atlantic on the east, from workshop and mine, from farm, office and forest Canadians trooped to the colours. Old members of the Royal Canadian Regiment, the Strathcona Horse and North West Mounted Police clamoured for re-enlistment.

It was not the first time that Canadians had aided the empire. In the Crimea, in the Indian Mutiny and in South Africa Canadians had fought for the mother-country, but there had been no occasion before in which the very existence of the empire had been threatened; there had been no great principle at stake for which men could gladly go forth to fight and die. Consequently when the news flashed over the Dominion calling for 20,000 volunteers to fight the War Lords of Europe there was a response which was astounding.

A great wave of patriotism passed over the country leaving hundreds of thousands of Canadian men wild to help in the crisis. Young men who were free volunteered at once; others with homes and business ties made desperate efforts to arrange their affairs and join the local battalion. Men of an older age cursed their fate and made futile efforts to get oversea in some menial capacity or other and were heartsick that military exigencies made it absolutely necessary to adhere to military regulations and establishments.

It was not militarism that inspired Canadians, for the militia in Canada had been looked upon with a good-natured tolerance as a sort of hobby for a few enthusiasts. Comparatively few Canadians really believed that war would come, yet Sir Robert Borden and General Hughes were perfectly certain that war was inevitable, as were many of the militia officers who had studied the situation and knew the German mind. It was therefore a much finer thing that led Canada's sons to leave their homes, give up their ease and comfort to enter upon a career that meant discomfort, subordination

of self, suffering and possibly death. They came forward freely and without constraint to offer themselves and their lives, if necessary, for the defence of the empire.

They perhaps saw more clearly in perspective than the Britisher that the existence of the empire was at stake, that if Britain fell Canada would be the next and that therefore they were fighting for their own homes.

The spirit which mostly dominated the Canadian volunteer, though perhaps often not quite understood, and never expressed, was the spirit of true patriotism which involved the love of justice, liberty and country.

The words of the Premier of Canada, Sir Robert Borden, spoken a little later, expressed this feeling:

I have listened with the deepest possible appreciation to the words which have been spoken of the action of Canada in this war. That action was due to no Government, to no statesman or group of statesmen. It was due to the spirit of the Canadian people, a spirit which will make the cause for which we are contending victorious, and which will pervade the dominions to the end. I do not need to tell you of the part that Canada has played and the part she proposes to play. But it might not be amiss for a moment to allude to the remarkable circumstance that four great overseas dominions, self-governing dominions of the empire, have been actuated by a common impulse at this juncture—Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada! Why have all these great free nations sent their men from the remotest corners of the earth to fight side by side with you of this island home in this quarrel? Why in Canada do we see those who are the descendants of those who fought under Wolfe, and of those who fought under Montcalm, standing side by side in the battle-line of the empire? Why, coming down to later days, do we see the grandson of a Durham, and the grandson of a Papineau, standing shoulder to shoulder beyond the Channel in France or Belgium? When the historian of the future comes to analyze the events which made it possible for the empire to stand like this, he will see that there must have been some overmastering impulse contributing to this wonderful result.

One such impulse is to be found in the love of liberty, the pursuit of ideals of democracy, and the desire and determination to preserve the spirit of unity founded on those ideals, which make the whole empire united in aim and single in purpose. But there was also, in all the overseas dominions, the intense conviction that this war was forced upon the empire—that we could not with honour stand aside and see trampled underfoot the liberties and independence of a weak and unoffending nation whose independence we had guaranteed. And, above and beyond all that, was the realization of the supreme truth—that the quarrel in which

we are engaged transcends even the destinies of our own empire and involves the future of civiiization and of the world.

We must not forget that in this war we are confronting the power of a military autocracy more highly organized and more formidable, perhaps than was ever any nation before in history. I am sure that the military strength which has been developed by our chief antagonists, has surprised the whole world; and I think that this war will bring to us a very vital question as to the future of democratic institutions. We have always cherished in these islands, and in the oversea dominions as well, the ideal of orderly government coupled with that of individual liberty. It remains to be seen, as the war proceeds, whether individual liberty within the British Isles and the overseas dominions, is coupled with so strong a sense of duty and of service to the state—whether in peace or in war—as to make it possible for us to withstand the onslaught of so formidable a foe.

For myself I have no doubt as to the issue.

CANADA UNITED TO UPHOLD THE HONOUR OF THE EMPIRE

The press clearly expressed the feeling of the vast majority of Canadians when it said that when Britain was at war Canada was at war, and that the struggle was one of autocracy against democracy, that British ideals of peace and principles of liberty must be preserved even at the cost of all the resources of the country. It was fully understood that as a branch of the United Kingdom our interests were one with theirs and that we must co-operate to our fullest extent to carry the war to a successful conclusion. It was recognized at last that the Canadian policy, due to the action of the pacifist element, had left the country poorly prepared to take immediate action, or protect our own shores and shipping.

The Canadian Government in the days of suspense preceding the declaration of war kept fully in touch with the situation in Europe by cable. On July 30th the Minister of Militia appeared at Ottawa from his summer home. Immediately rumours of the mobilization of an army of 20,000 men began to appear. On August 1st the Governor General, the Duke of Connaught, on behalf of the country cabled to the Colonial Secretary suggesting that a military force be raised for service abroad, and asking for suggestions from the naval and military authorities. He gave further assurance to the British that in event of war being declared the Canadian people would be united in the common resolve to

make every effort and sacrifice to maintain the honour and integrity of the British Empire.

A despatch of appreciation was received from the British Government, and on August 4th a second despatch came suggesting that steps to enable prompt action should at once be taken. A few hours afterwards war was declared.

At the same time a message came from King George thanking Canada for its support, and was answered by the Governor General who said: "Canada stands united from the Pacific to the Atlantic in her determination to uphold the honour and traditions of our empire."

On August 6th the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Harcourt, cabled to the Governor General at Ottawa saying: "His Majesty's Government gratefully accept the offer of your Minister to send expeditionary force to this country and would be glad if it could be despatched as soon as possible."

Thereafter events moved rapidly. On August 7th two submarines were purchased from a Seattle firm and quietly transferred to Esquimalt. Wireless and cable messages were strictly censored and suspected enemy agents were kept under observation. A million bags of flour, valued at three million dollars, were offered to the British Government by the Canadian Government and accepted. The size of this gift may be appreciated by the fact that a million bags of flour required two hundred trains of thirty cars each to transport it.

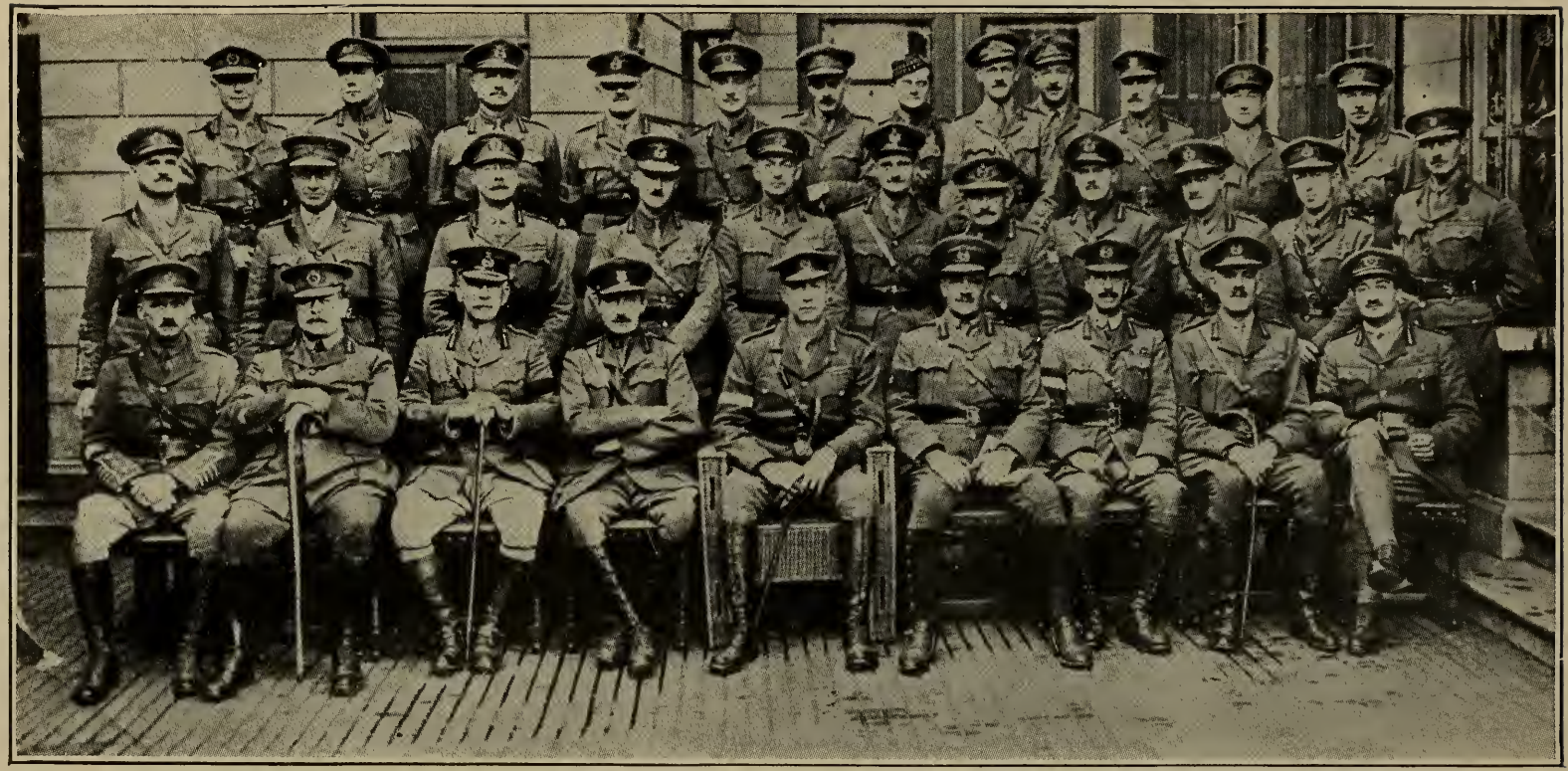
All kinds of Orders in Council were promulgated covering export trade to enemy countries, to prevent the aiding of the Central Powers, to control espionage, trading with enemy agents, defining the status of enemy aliens who pursued their ordinary avocations and listing of merchandise not to be exported. Provision was also made for the financing of Canadians stranded abroad during the crisis.

At the brief opening of the Canadian House for four days, on September 18th, under conditions which made all men grave and thoughtful, the Premier said, in concluding his speech:

> In the awful dawn of the greatest war the world has ever known, in the hour when peril confronts us, such as this empire has not faced for one hundred years every vain or unnecessary word seems a discord. As to our duty all are agreed we stand shoulder to shoulder with Britain

THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE
Governor-General of Canada.

SIR ROBERT LAIRD BORDEN
Premier of Canada.



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GENERAL SIR ARTHUR CURRIE WITH H. R. H. PRINCE ARTHUR OF CONNAUGHT AND DIVISIONAL AND BRIGADIER GENERALS

Seated—Col. A. McPhail; Maj.-Gen. Lindsay; Maj.-Gen. A. C. MacDonnell; Prince Arthur of Connaught; Lieut.-Gen. Sir A. W. Currie; Maj.-Gen. Sir H. E. Burstall; Brig.-Gen. G. A. Farmer; Brig.-Gen. H. A. Panet; Brig.-Gen. Brutinel.

Middle Row—Lieut.-Col. J. A. MacDonald; Lieut.-Col. E. B. Anderson; Brig.-Gen. R. P. Clark; Brig.-Gen. V. W. Odlum; Brig.-Gen. J. H. McBrien; Brig.-Gen. J. A. Clark; Brig.-Gen. D. C. Draper; Brig.-Gen. D. M. Ormond; Brig.-Gen. Eric McQuaig; Brig.-Gen. W. A. Griesbach; Lieut-.Col. M. C. Festing.

Top Row—Brig.-Gen. J. S. Stewart; Brig.-Gen. W. O. H. Dodds; Brig.-Gen. Bell; Brig.-Gen. A. E. Ross; Brig.-Gen. T. C. Tremblay; Brig.-Gen. A. McNaughton; Lieut.-Col. C. Bent; Col. Hertzberg; ————————; O. C. Engineers; Maj. Sinclair A.-D.-C. to Prince Arthur; Capt. W. J. Shaughnessy, A.-D.-C. to Sir Arthur Currie; Lieut. Gordon, A.-D.-C.

and the other British dominions in this quarrel and that duty we shall not fail to fulfil as the honour of Canada demands; not for love of battle not for love of conquest, not for greed of possessions but for the cause of honour to maintain solemn pledges to uphold principles of liberty, to withstand forces that would convert the world into an armed camp, yea in the very name of the peace that we sought at any cost save that of dishonour.

The Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden, for the first time in Canadian history was the leader of a united people, and in a crisis without parallel he rose to the occasion. History will pay a high tribute to this great statesman who quietly and with infinite patience handled all problems with a precision and sureness of judgment that made him stand out even in conferences of the great statesmen of the empire in later years.

When Canadians, early in August, awoke to the fact that the greatest war in history was beginning they were forced to that realization more by financial conditions than anything else, yet the immediate response of volunteers was remarkable. On August 6th, when it was officially announced that a division was to be assembled in Quebec, General Hughes stated that he had already received offers of five times the number of volunteers required and that 100,000 could be raised if necessary.

The voluntary offers of many patriotic citizens throughout the country indicated how deep-felt was the anxiety to serve in the great crisis. At Montreal Mr. A. Hamilton Gault gave $100,000 towards the expenses of a regiment of men who had already seen active service. This regiment was recruited very rapidly, ninety per cent of its members being Old Countrymen.

Mr. John C. Eaton of Toronto offered $100,000 with which to equip a battery of machine guns mounted on motor trucks. The Honourable Clifford Sifton also offered a battery of guns mounted on motor trucks, and many other magnificent offers were made which indicated the wonderful spirit of service that had sprung into being throughout the country.

On August 6th orders were issued for the enlistment of 21,000 men, mobilization to take place in Valcartier, a village about sixteen miles from Quebec among the blue Laurentian hills.

CHAPTER VI

The Retreat from Mons

The German army entered Brussels on August 20th and poured through the city southward. One German army corps had gone north to keep in touch with the Belgian army retreating to Antwerp. The main stream, consisting of Von Kluck's army, moved south to attack the allied left at Mons and Tournai.

The second army under Von Buelow marched towards the crossings of the Sambre River line held by the fifth French army. To the left of the French fifth army the British held the line through Binchy, Mons and Conde. Behind the British lines General Sordet's cavalry corps rested. Sir John French's army in the Mons position consisted of the First and Second infantry corps and Allenby's cavalry division. On August 21st and 22d when they reached the Mons position the men at once began entrenching. The exact force of the enemy was unknown but the airmen had seen enough of the German advance to make it clear that the attack would be in considerable force. The plan of the French staff was to meet the enemy's attack on the Charleroi-Mons line and after breaking the first attack assume the offensive and advance, pivoting on Namur. Such an operation, if successful, would make possible the reoccupation of Brussels and a junction of the British left with the Belgian army retreating from Antwerp.

The line held by the British was about twenty-five miles in length and the defending force consisted of about 75,000 men and 250 guns. This gave Sir John French only about 3,000 men to the mile, a number which was sufficient because the men were thoroughly trained fighters. It left him no reserves however, and as a consequence he was compelled to use his cavalry division for that purpose placing the four brigades in rear of the left flank with orders to move to the support of any threatened part of the line.

The Fifth cavalry brigade scouting far to the front on August 22d came in contact at various points with the enemy's advance patrols. In these encounters the British were everywhere success-

ful in driving in the advanced parties of the German cavalry. The presence of large bodies of German infantry was discovered by these operations. On Saturday the 22d while the British cavalry was thus engaged Von Buelow attacked the fifth French army, and as the day wore on fierce fighting developed around Charleroi. The bridges were captured and early on Sunday morning the Germans began crossing the Sambre. A surprise attack from the right combined to make the frontal attack by Von Buelow a success. At the same time the fortress of Namur collapsed, and late on Saturday the French army along the Sambre had not only Von Buelow pressing on the front but two other army corps attacking the right flank. Under this pressure the fifth French army gave way and began its retirement southwards without, unfortunately, informing General French of the situation. Consequently the British General, under the impression that the allied army on his right was still holding firm, was led into fighting a battle against greatly superior numbers in a most dangerous position. On Sunday, August 23d, Von Kluck brought into action against the British not only his own army but the right of Von Buelow's victorious army.

It is well to note that farther to the right of the allied line the Germans, after driving in the right of the fifth army, had succeeded in delivering a successful flank attack against General Langley's army. The two flanks exposed by the break in the front were attacked and a wedge driven into the allied line. This was the decisive factor in compelling the general retreat. As a consequence the British army was left isolated around Mons. This fact should be appreciated in following the magnificent performance of the British force in fighting a hopeless battle and extricating itself from the pursuit of overwhelming numbers.

Sir John French, relying on the information supplied by his Allies, awaited Von Kluck's attack with confidence. The attack began at noon and in half an hour the artillery was thundering all along the front of twenty-five miles. At first the enemy's fire was ineffective, but soon aeroplanes flying high over the British lines dropped smoke bombs on our artillery positions. The black cloud of smoke rising from the places where they fell served to locate our positions and almost instantly the enemy shells began to explode in the spots thus pointed out.

The British soldiers, confident in their marksmanship, fired

deliberately as on targets at Aldershot. The targets were easy, for the German attack was pushed without consideration of life and with reckless haste. The enemy, to the great surprise of the British regulars, advanced in dense masses and was mowed down in great numbers, while the German rifle fire was strangely ineffective. The enemy struggled on, however, and as his withered ranks fell back other waves came on in desperate efforts to push through. Sometimes these massed attacks would almost prove successful, when with cheers the British would dash forward with the bayonet and the enemy, unable to stand the steel, would be forced to seek cover. But the Germans could afford to waste life in the effort to wear down the defence and the attacks were pushed almost continuously. Around the bridges particularly the fighting was most severe; later on when the enemy's overwhelming superiority and numbers became apparent all our troops were withdrawn to the south side of the river and the bridges blown up.

In the first stage of the battle the German effort was directed mainly against the exposed British right flank. As a consequence it was necessary for Sir Douglas Haig to draw in his right and slowly fall back. This left Mons the apex of an angle at which the front of the First and Second corps met. It also made it possible for the Germans to make converging attacks from the front and flank. Sir John French therefore directed that Mons, if threatened seriously, should be abandoned.

At this time a telegram arrived from General Joffre informing the British commander that the French army was in full retreat and that not less than three German army corps were attacking the British. It seemed almost certain that the 75,000 British were opposed by probably 200,000 Germans. A victorious German army was also pushing forward past his right flank in pursuit of the French and probably 40,000 more of the enemy were sweeping round his left. If a prolonged stand at Mons were attempted it was certain that the British army would be enveloped and destroyed and accordingly it was decided to retreat, since the position of the British army was no longer tenable.

The first stages of the retirement began Sunday evening. As the transport columns and ambulances streamed backwards towards France the country people fled from their homes and the marching columns were encumbered by crowds of fugitives.

General French's plan in retreat was to check the Germans on one side by threats of a counter-attack. While this was in progress the other corps was to fall back to a designated position, behind which the First corps would retire. When it was well upon its way the Second corps would in its turn retreat and form upon its left. There is no operation so difficult as a fighting retreat in the face of superior numbers. It requires sound, cool judgment on the part of the commander and officers and absolute steadiness on the part of the men. General French's method was in general very successful and the British succeeded in preventing the Germans from bringing on a decisive battle. Allenby's cavalry during the various retreats successfully protected the endangered flanks and prevented any possible enveloping movement.

On Tuesday, a day of intense heat, the wearied British troops marched southward to a new position about the town of Le Cateau, east of Cambrai. That night the men were so exhausted that they could not proceed farther without resting. Before midnight the wearied British troops, resting in bivouac, were attacked by German columns which had marched through the woods instead of along the burning highroads. The attack which was pushed vigorously was broken at every point and was called off for the time being.

At dawn orders came again to march but the men of the First corps were so utterly exhausted that it was decided they should not be placed in the fighting line that day. This plan proved impossible, for the Germans had marched four army corps during the night to a position opposite the front of Smith-Dorrien's Second corps. The attack, supported by some 600 guns, began at dawn and Smith-Dorrien found it impossible to retreat as ordered until he had beaten off the enemy's attack. Unfortunately no support was available because the First corps was utterly played out. Smith-Dorrien had no time to entrench the position. For eight hours the infantry not only held their ground but frequently counter-attacked assisted by gallant charges by Allenby's cavalry and the wonderful support of British artillery outmatched by four to one.

Von Kluck unable to break the British line by frontal attacks began a great enveloping movement of our flanks with the result that certain German batteries secured positions in which they could enfilade the British line. In order to avoid annihilation Sir John French ordered retirement and late in the afternoon Smith-Dorrien

successfully moved what was left of his three divisions. The march of the Second corps that night, wearied with continuous fighting, is one of the remarkable events of the war. The men though tired marched steadily, horses dropped between the traces and men sat down exhausted by the roadside; guns overturned in the ditch were rendered useless and left. When horses could no longer draw the loads the loads were discarded.

An eye-witness says: "I dozed in the saddle to waken with a start but still nothing but the creak and rumble of wagons and guns and the tramp, tramp of the men. The overpowering desire for sleep, the weariness, and ache of every fibre and the thirst as I have only thirsted once before and that was in the desert near Khartoum. As dawn was breaking over the hills the column still creaked and groaned its way more asleep than awake but still moving, a wonderful triumph of will over human frailty. The men, worn and gaunt, looked as if they had just recovered from serious illness."

The critical day for the British force had been the battle of Le Cateau. Smith-Dorrien's dogged resistance on that day not only saved the army but broke the vigour of the German pursuit. On the day of the battle the First corps had marched southward to the valley of the Oise without serious menace from German pursuit. On the 27th and the 28th the retreat was continued in two columns. The First corps under Haig moved along the line of the Oise towards La Fere, and Smith-Dorrien with the Second corps marched further to the west by St. Quentin to Chaulny and Noyon.

For the first time the British had some effective support from the French when General Sordet's cavalry corps came into action relieving Allenby's hard-worked cavalry. General D'Amade with two French reserve divisions also closed in from the direction of Arras and threatened the right flank of the German pursuit; on the other flank the First and Third French corps moving forward on the right of the fifth army took off some of the pressure of the enemy.

On Friday night, August 28th, the whole of the British Expeditionary force was assembled along the Oise River from La Fere to Noyon weary after six days of fighting and marching but with spirit unshaken. For the first time in nearly a week all the men

had a good eight hours' sleep, comfortable meals and the refreshment of a bath. On Saturday, much to the delight of all, there were no marching orders, the army being given a holiday for rest and reorganization.

It must not be inferred, as newspaper reports led one to believe at the time, that the Germans were directing all their strength against the British. The French army had been beaten all along the line and forced to retreat on the whole front. The French army however, was not destroyed and was still retiring until the opportunity presented itself of making a stand. It is an elementary principle of war that the objective of an army in the field is not the conquest of territory or cities but the destruction of the main fighting force of the enemy. Had such occurred and the allied armies been broken up and forced to surrender Paris and France would fall with certainty.

After forcing a passage across the Aisne the German army to the centre was directed upon Rheims and Châlons. Long before the enemy's advance had reached this point it was obvious that the right of the French position on the heights of Champagne was being turned and the retreat of the allied left was renewed. The plain fact was that the French centre was being steadily forced back by the huge masses which the Germans had accumulated against it, which had heavily defeated it at several points and was now pushing it towards the upper Marne River. To conform to this movement the retreat of the British began afresh towards the Marne in the neighbourhood of Meaux.

On September 3d the British force, after hard fighting in the woods of Compeigne and Villers-Cotterets woods, reached the Marne River and crossing it blew up the bridges behind them. Two days later the British force was concentrated some miles further south on a tributary, the Grand Morin, and the long retreat from the Belgian front was at an end.

It was a wonderful achievement. The men had gone straight from the train or long marches into action and almost every hour of every day since they had been retreating. Daily they came into close combat with greatly superior forces of the enemy and it would have been small wonder if the heart of the men had broken under the strain. Such conditions are desperately trying to soldiers' nerves. The men and officers knew nothing of the general

situation; they had fallen back in complete uncertainty as to what was happening and could only suspect that the Germans were winning because they were the better army. To have preserved discipline and even retained gaiety and humor was an achievement almost more remarkable than a great victory.

The performance of the French army was not less splendid. It had begun with the defeat at Charleroi, Dinant and Danchery. The French soldier is not supposed to possess the traditional phlegmatic temperament of the British and it was therefore an exceedingly trying experience for the French troops and their Colonials.

The retreat of the Allies from the Sambre to the Marne will live among the great retreats in history. The British performance from a military point of view was the most difficult part of the operation. The total losses up to the time of our halt on the Marne amounted to 15,142 in the ten days. The comparatively small losses, the excellent discipline and morale preserved in Sir John French's troops were the distinguishing features of the retreat. When the time came to turn and strike, his men were as eager and confident as they were on the first day of the battle.

The German war machine had certainly proved its efficiency. The invasion of East Prussia by the Russians had been stopped and the tide of battle had clearly turned in favour of German arms. In the west fortress after fortress had fallen, Belgium had been overrun, its Capital occupied, its army pent up behind the forts of Antwerp. In ten days the allied armies of France and England, which had begun the offensive along the frontier, had been driven back one hundred miles to that valley which Napoleon had held to be the last defence of Paris.

A long list of battles won had been added to the annals of Germany. Everywhere the allied army had yielded ground day by day, and France had been inundated by the flood of German soldiers sweeping over the countryside. It seemed as if the great German plan was working out with mathematical precision, France would be swiftly crushed, and then the armies, flushed with victory, would be transferred to the eastern battlefront to deal with the Russians.

On the 4th September the French Republican Government had left Paris for Bordeaux; Paris was being bombed daily by

German airmen, and strayed and wounded soldiers appeared on the streets. Up to this time the citizens of the French capital had been singularly cool and unconcerned, superficially at least. When, however, the roar of cannon and the sound of bridges being blown up were heard in the suburbs of Paris a considerable exodus began of people who dreaded a siege. Many fled to England and the steamers that left French ports were so crowded that there was not even standing room on the decks. Probably one-third of the normal population of the Capital moved out.

General Gallieni had been appointed Military Governor of Paris. The newer fortifications of the city constructed after 1870 consisted of a second outer circle of forts, redoubts and batteries covering a circle of more than seventy-five miles. These defences, however, had been neglected. The amount of barbed wire in the stores for example, did not suffice to construct an entanglement for even one front of the great fortress. The French staff therefore realizing that Paris could not withstand a siege concentrated their efforts on making a siege impossible by a counter-stroke against the enemy's advance.

The German staff, on the other hand, was convinced that the Allies' forces were already not only beaten but demoralized by the ceaseless pressure of the pursuit. So far during the retreat there had been no sign of any combined counter-attack or even of an attempt at a general stand along the line and the Germans did not anticipate any danger from Paris. Von Kluck, therefore, took the risk of swinging around and pushing his army corps between the eastern defences of Paris and the extreme left of the allied line. There is little doubt that his general instructions were to cut the Allies off from the Capital, not with any view of an immediate investment, but in order to outflank their left and either roll up their line or force them to continue their headlong retreat to the south. He had come to regard the British army as virtually out of action.

According to the German theory an army of less than 100,000 men driven for a week by a quarter of a million Germans must have been reduced to a dispirited and panicky mob without spirit or semblance of discipline. Acting on this belief Von Kluck marched his right wing across the British front hoping to drive a wedge between the fifth French army and French's remnants. The Brit-

ish aviators speedily discovered and reported this new movement of Von Kluck's and further east the French airmen had intelligence as to the positions and movements of the other German forces on the long line stretching from the lower Marne to the neighbourhood of Verdun.

General Joffre decided that the moment had arrived to abandon the defensive and attack the invaders. The plan as explained to Sir John French was that the sixth French army should move from Paris and be thrown against the German right while Sir John French with the British should attack in front. At the same time the forward movement against the Germans would be continued eastwards by the four French armies holding the line between the British right and the barrier fortresses at Verdun. The long retreat had finally reached its end, the moment for the Allies to strike back had arrived. The battle of the Marne fought on a front of more than one hundred miles began a new phase in the drama of war.

For the Germans the need was an immediate and crushing victory. Though the Russian invasions had been stopped the eastern frontier was likely to soon require further re-enforcements, while the army of the west would never be stronger than it was at the moment. It was no longer possible to attempt to envelop the French by a sweeping movement around the Paris defences, since this would thin out the line to an impossible extent. The obvious procedure would be to pierce the allied line, split it in two, and roll up each half. To ensure this desirable end it had been decided that Von Kluck would strike at the left of the French fifth army disregarding the British while the armies of Saxony, Wurtemburg and the Crown Prince should attack the wearied troops of Langley and Ruffey.

The battle began at dawn on Sunday, September 6th. General Joffre on that morning issued the following order to his men, "At the moment when a battle on which the welfare of the country depends is about to begin I feel it my duty to remind you that it is no longer the time to look behind. We have but one business on hand—to attack and repel the enemy. An army which can no longer advance will at all costs hold the ground it has won and allow itself to be slain where it stands rather than give way. This is no time for faltering and it will not be suffered."

To most of the German armies the first day of fighting may have seemed to be one of reasonable success. Von Kluck, however, with the sudden appearance of the sixth French army which, as if by magic, had been flung out of Paris in taxicabs and motors of every description, and with the despised British armies playing havoc with his right flank, began to realize his situation. The British artillery fire aided by the admirable work of our airmen was deadly and whole German batteries were smashed to pieces. Von Kluck's corps was caught in a trap, he was compelled to fall back, and on the morning of the 8th his army was in full retreat. On the same evening General Foch, the brilliant strategist and writer of military classics, who was later to become generalissimo of the allied forces, succeeded in driving a wedge between the armies of Von Buelow and Von Hausen.

THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE

On Wednesday, September 9th, a day of high winds and drenching rains, the British on their front were victorious and drove Von Kluck's army across the Marne, the battle developing into a gigantic man-hunt. At the same time D'Esperey drove back the Germans and further south two of Von Buelow's corps were driven through the marshes of St. Gond with a loss of many prisoners and forty guns, while Foch had driven a wedge between the armies of Von Buelow and Von Hausen. The rest of the French line held or was improved in position.

On Thursday, September 10th, the battle of the Marne had been won by the Allies and the engagement became a drive. The German retreat was superbly managed, it was not a rout.

By Saturday, September 12th, the Germans had occupied a line of positions on the Aisne and Suippes rivers. This line, previously prepared by German sappers left behind in case of an emergency, constitutes one of the strongest natural defences in Europe.

The battle of the Marne, consisting of a series of separate engagements, was an indisputable victory for the Allies, won by hard fighting and superior generalship. The Germans failed firstly, because Von Kluck had arrogantly exposed his right and secondly, because of the heavy defeat inflicted by Foch on the enemy right centre. Great credit was due also to Langley and Sarrail who had to meet and repel the most violent part of the German offensive.

The great German strategy had failed, henceforth the Germans were to be on the defensive and forced to accept a war of entanglements,—a type of warfare they hated.

With the retirement of the Germans the allied soldiers, particularly the British, realized for the first time the horrors of war in a civilized country and the ruthlessness of German methods. In the retreat from Mons they had fallen back through a friendly

Retreat of Germans after First Battle of the Marne

country not yet devastated by the enemy. As they marched north again they entered a countryside ravaged and dishonoured. Chateaux and farmhouses were burnt, villages smashed beyond recognition, farms and gardens laid waste, everywhere a brutal and senseless devastation. Tales of outrages on civilized population made the British realize that they were pitted against no ordinary foe, but something which seemed to be the enemy of all mankind and of civilization itself.

CHAPTER VII

First Canadian Contingent Sails for Europe

The Minister of Militia, General Sir Sam Hughes, was the most-talked-of man in Canada in the latter months of 1914, and his fame soon spread across the water. His great-grandfather, General St. Pierre, had fought beside Napoleon and, with two of his sons, had died at Waterloo. The blood of great soldiers stirred in his veins and manifested itself when a boy.

A one time English master in a Toronto collegiate institute, then a county newspaper editor, elected year after year in a riding which was largely Catholic, "Can't-be-beat Hughes" became the accepted dictum of his county. Personally he was enormously popular and knew not only the name of every voter but the names of the children of every voter in his riding. Moreover he did what he promised so that today there are few ridings as well looked after as Sir Sam's riding of North Victoria.

As a keen military man, Colonel Hughes got into many a battle and had been known on occasion to resort to his fists to obtain a decision.

As the military critic of the opposition in the House he attacked General Hutton, the then supreme military officer in the Dominion. It was thought this was the reason Colonel Hughes was not accepted for service in South Africa when that war broke out. Nothing daunted, with the Premier's leave, he set sail on the South African transport in civilian dress. In South Africa he obtained employment on transport work, became attached to the staff of General Chas. Warren in Bechuanaland and the head of the mounted brigade till the end of that war.

When the Conservatives came into power in 1911, Sir Robert Borden appointed this aggressive soldier Minister of Militia. It was with some misgivings that the party viewed this appointment. Colonel Hughes's past performances, particularly in debate, would lead one to expect trouble. The Prime Minister rightly placed a high value on his potentialities.

Once in power, this strong-willed, self-assertive, self-reliant, egotistic and aggressive man became a prominent figure. Original in ideas he had always been; the new Minister of Militia and Defence proved to be original in policy when he got into office. As an active military officer he pressed and agitated reforms that would make a more efficient militia. His newspaper training and his ability to talk brought his ideas constantly before the people. As a member of the Federal Cabinet he gave his own ideas form and authority.

In the House he was constantly being attacked, and baiting the Minister was a practice not uncommonly attempted, but the Minister stood to his guns and returned as good as he received.

The annual estimates of the Militia Department, which were increasing greatly from year to year under the new Minister, made him the target of many rude gibes. On May 7, 1914, he was attacked by F. W. Pardee, who denounced him as "Absolutely obsessed with militarism." F. B. Carvell thought the Minister had gone "militia mad." Hugh Guthrie exclaimed: "The militia expenditure in Canada today is entirely out of proportion to our needs and our wealth—the time will never come in this country when the expenditure the Minister proposes will be justified. There is no reason for it, there is no emergency in sight and there will be none in our day and generation." R. Lemieux declared the country to be going "military mad" under General Hughes's influence. G. W. Kyte denounced the "extravagance, fuss and feathers" of the department. And so it went on session after session.

Notwithstanding these attacks a great majority in the House of Commons provided the money for a general house-cleaning. And so it came to pass that officials passed out and new men (not always good ones) came in during the period of re-organization. The ability to invariably select good men, either for action or as advisers, was not one of General Hughes's qualities. Many of his subsequent troubles grew out of the fact that he had chosen men because he liked them, because they were plausible, or because they appealed to his egotism. Unfortunately he sometimes accepted their advice and got himself, in consequence, into serious trouble.

As has already been said, when war broke out, General Hughes

became the most-talked-of man in Canada. His prophecies had been realized and his policies justified. Even his enemies had to admit that his judgment had proved correct. For the time he was given *carte blanche* and had the confidence of friend and foe alike.

On July 30th, without hesitation or the calling of Parliament, or even a meeting of the Cabinet, General Hughes arrived in Ottawa and held an emergency meeting of the Militia Council. He at once took charge of the military situation with all the self-possession and aggressiveness of his make-up. He organized, worked and talked with equal enthusiasm; he seemed to be everywhere, travelling huge distances at night; alert, fearless of criticism, intensely active, he put into the crowded hours of those early war days an energy that seemed almost superhuman. His frank speeches on the war shocked some, but proved intensely interesting to all. He said things which evoked censure, he did things which evoked general praise. He raised a force of thousands of men in the great cause of liberty, but in so doing he rode pell-mell over people's accepted ideas and practices with an egotism equalled only by that of Emperor Wilhelm. It must have been satisfactory to him to have been able to put into action the opinions and policy which he had urged upon the country in days of peace.

Among other reforms he had driven the wet canteen from every military camp and banished liquor from every officers' mess in Canada, a move which required a deal of firmness and proved successful. The list of good deeds standing to his credit was large. Frankly it may be said that at the time no other military man in Canada engaged in politics could have accomplished so much real work in so short a time with the handicaps which prevailed. The very qualities of pugnacious self-assertion and super-confidence were so startling in the Cabinet that the Militia Department got not only what it wanted but what it needed.

The work of organizing and equipping the Canadians for overseas service was carried on vigorously by the Minister of Militia. Everywhere throughout the country preachers, teachers, university professors and other men of influence appealed to the vast youth of the country to volunteer. The result was that a large number of highly educated men volunteered and became officers and non-commissioned officers of the very best type, such

men being particularly valuable because, like the school boys of Eton and other English colleges, they had been trained through athletics to take punishment and use their heads.

Clergymen throughout the country who had been prominent in preaching pacificism, faced about and flung themselves wholeheartedly into the cause, working night and day, at recruiting, for the Red Cross and other patriotic organizations.

While Valcartier was in course of construction the battalions being recruited throughout the country were mobilized in the local camps and began their course of training.

The scenes which took place when these units finally left for the great camp in Quebec were excellent demonstrations of the feeling that had been inspired throughout the country. For example, when the 48th Highlanders of Toronto left the armouries in Toronto for the station, in a drizzling rain, tens of thousands of people lined the streets. By the time the station was reached all semblance of order had gone from the ranks, young women carried the men's rifles, others decorated them with flowers, some clung to their arms, and the sidewalks were masses of cheering humanity. Friends had come to Toronto from all over the Province to see the regiment leave for the front and probably 100,000 people had gathered to see the battalion depart. There were no tears but much cheerfulness and goodwill in this earnest and heartfelt send-off. It was typical of what was taking place from one end of Canada to the other.

The site for the concentration camp had been chosen at Valcartier, a place nestling amongst the blue Laurentian Hills about sixteen miles from Quebec, and convenient to that port of embarkation. Within four days 6,000 men had arrived at Valcartier; in another week there were 25,000 men. From centres all over Canada, troop trains, each carrying hundreds of embryo soldiers, sped towards Valcartier and deposited their burdens on the twenty-five miles of sidings that had sprung up as though by magic.

The rapid evolution of that wild and wooded valley of the Valcartier River as I saw it for the first time on August 12th into a model military camp was a great tribute to the engineering skill and energy of civilians who had never done the like before. One day an army of woodmen was seen felling trees, the next day the stumps

MAJOR-GENERAL SIR SAM HUGHES
Canadian Minister of Militia and Defence.

WITH A BRITISH BATTERY AT THE FRONT

The tense moment when an order arrives by field telephone from the observation officer.

of those trees were torn out and the hollows filled, on the third day long rows of tents in regular camp formation covered the ground and the fourth day they were occupied by civilian soldiers concentrated upon learning the rudiments of the art and science of war.

VALCARTIER CAMP

Streets were laid out; miles of water pipes, sunk in machine-made ditches, were connected for taps and shower baths; a system of electric lighting was installed; three miles of rifle butts were completed and in two weeks the camp was practically finished. It was the finest camp that the first Canadian division was ever destined to see. The building of Valcartier was typical of the driving power, vision and genius of the Minister of Militia, General Hughes.

Of the 33,000 men assembled at Valcartier the great majority were civilians without any previous training in warfare. About 7,000 Canadians had taken part in South Africa fifteen years before and some of these, together with a few ex-regulars, who had seen active service, were formed into the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry. Otherwise, with the exception of the 3,000 regulars that formed the standing army in Canada, the men and most of the officers were amateurs.

The camp was under the command of Colonel Victor Williams. No liquor was allowed in the camp, and there was very little difficulty with the men.

Many who had never served in the militia clamoured for commissions, and the Minister of Militia had a good deal of difficult work in the selection of his officers. Notwithstanding, the troops worked hard day by day, and it was astonishing how quickly they learned the rudiments of the game and presented at least a smart appearance when drilling or in manœuvres.

It was generally thought that if a man could shoot and had a few weeks' training, he was ready to take his place in the front line. It was not realized that an army composed of such badly trained men would be little better than a mob, because they would not possess the first essential—discipline.

It was a feat that Canadian people could be proud of, that in the great crisis they were able to gather together this force so

quickly. It was also a matter of congratulation that without delay great industries were turned over to the manufacture of all necessary army equipment. Factories all over the country immediately began turning out vast quantities of khaki cloth, uniforms, boots, ammunition, harness, wagons and the thousand and one articles necessary for an army.

Before the end of September, 1914, the Canadian Expeditionary Force had been roughly hewn into shape, battalions had been regrouped and remodelled, officers retransferred and in many cases weeded out, intensive training carried on and all the necessary equipment assembled.

Towards the end of September orders came to move, and, one by one, the various battalions and units comprising the contingent left for Quebec by road and by train.

Quebec City was bustling with life and activity. The city was full of friends who had come to bid their soldiers farewell. Through the crooked streets the tramp of Canadian battalions and the rumbling of batteries and guns was heard as they made their way to the ships on the riverside. The slumbers of a hundred years' peace had been once more broken; the empire was again threatened and Canada was at war.

At night from the Château Frontenac filled with gay soldiers and smiling relatives we could see the moving lights of the St. Lawrence River far below; the flashes of a powerful searchlight swept the water, lighting up the opposite shores and playing upon the craft anchored or moored to the wharves. It was a reminder of the possibility that Quebec might be attacked from the sea and was the first intimation that there was any possibility of danger in Canada.

One by one, as the great liners were loaded with troops and equipment, they slipped away from the Quebec wharves and quietly passed down the great St. Lawrence to the open sea.

Much to the surprise of everybody they found themselves gathering in Gaspé harbour in Quebec, and then only was it learned that sealed orders had been given to rendezvous there.

Riding in that peaceful harbor were four small gunboats and the thirty-three transports which were to carry the contingent overseas. At three of the clock on October 3, 1914, the small cruisers, the *Diana*, the *Eclipse*, the *Talbot* and *Charybdis* put to

sea, the *Talbot* acting as rearguard while the transports formed three lines following the other three cruisers. The speed, set by the slowest craft, the *Monmouth*, was ten knots an hour and each ship was separated from the one in front by four cable-lengths. In case the convoy was scattered by fog, storm or other cause, a rendezvous was arranged for each day.

THE FLEET LEAVING GASPÉ BASIN

Slowly Gaspé was left behind; the shores of Quebec, with their white cottages, their fishing boats and the churches with their gilded spires, receded, and the Canadian armada passed on into the Atlantic.

On each transport as it sailed away from Quebec was read a message from Field Marshal, H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught:

> On the eve of your departure from Canada I wish to congratulate you on having the privilege of taking part, with the other forces of the Crown, in fighting for the honour of the King and Empire. You have nobly responded to the call of duty, and Canada will know how to appreciate the patriotic spirit that animates you. I have complete confidence that you will do your duty, and that Canada will have every reason to be proud of you. You leave these shores with the knowledge that all Canadian hearts beat for you, and that our prayers and best wishes will ever attend you. May God bless you and bring you back victorious.

It was the greatest fleet of transports that had ever been gathered together in the history of the world. The fleet consisted of thirty-two vessels carrying 33,000 men, 7,000 horses and all the motors, wagons and equipment necessary to place one complete infantry division and a cavalry brigade in the field and supply the necessary reserves. At night the convoy steamed along like a fleet of phantom ships, all the windows and portholes carefully screened so that not a single ray of light was visible to reveal the location of the vessels.

Off Newfoundland the three lines of ships ploughing along about a mile and a half apart picked up the H. M. S. *Glory*, which took up her position about ten miles to the right. There also the Newfoundland contingent, in the ship *Florizel*, joined the convoy.

On the 10th the *Princess Royal*, one of the super-dreadnoughts with a speed of thirty-four knots, and carrying eight

13½-inch guns, took up her position on the left, and the next day another dreadnought, H. M. S. *Majestic*, quietly took her place ahead of the convoy.

The weather was remarkably fine and on the 14th October England was sighted near Land's End.

Nothing had been seen of any of the German pirates and it was a wonderful tribute to the power of the British navy that the fleet had crossed the ocean without hindrance.

The approach to Plymouth was wonderfully pleasant to the men who had been two weeks on board ship endeavouring to fill in the time by drill, athletic contests and games. The trees were in full foliage, shades of brown and olive-green predominating, making a most restful change from the monotony of the sea.

THE FLEET ENTERING PLYMOUTH HARBOUR

Destroyers and torpedo-boats speeded around us in large numbers and escorted the vessels, while, as the breakwater was approached, a large number of paddle-wheel tugs came out and piloted the vessels safely into perhaps the most noted harbour in the world. It was from this port that Drake, Hawkins and Cook left on their forays and expeditions which brought England such notoriety and gave her such a reputation.

All along the banks dense crowds of people poured forth and cheered the Canadian transports, while the training ships were manned with sailors and cadets. All the warships under construction, the training ships, the docks and other points of vantage were thronged with crowds of cheering people, civilians, soldiers and sailors. As the vessels were slowly piloted up the Channel, the welcome increased in intensity until it seemed as if everybody had gone mad.

It was a remarkable and never-to-be-forgotten reception. This extraordinary ovation by the sober English people meant more than a welcome to the Canadians from overseas. Back of the demonstration was the conviction that blood had proved thicker than water, that the apparently flimsy ties that bound the colony to the empire were bonds of steel. It was a proof that the German conviction that the British Colonies would fall away and the British Empire disintegrate upon the outbreak of a great war had proved false.

Incidentally it was a great demonstration that the much vaunted German navy had been swept from the seas and rendered impotent by the might of Britain's fleet.

That night the vessels were brilliantly illuminated, bands played, many danced and all were happy to be thus far on their journey to the real adventure.

To the Dominion Government on October 16th, Winston Churchill, as First Lord of the Admiralty, sent the following despatch:

> Canada sends her aid at a timely moment. The conflict moves forward to its terrible climax and fiercer struggles lie before us than any which have yet been fought.

To General Alderson, in charge of the disembarkation at Plymouth, came a telegram from Field Marshal Lord Kitchener:

> Will you please convey my cordial greetings to the splendid contingent from Canada which has just reached these shores to take their share in the cause of the Mother Country. I am confident that they will play their part with gallantry, and show by their soldier-like bearing that they worthily represent the great Dominion from which they come. They may always be sure that I will do my best to forward their interests.

On the arrival of the fleet at Plymouth, the following messages were received:

Fulham Palace: "All England welcomes with pride and gratitude Canadians' help," wrote the Bishop of London.

Eastbourne: "I rejoice with every Briton at the coming of such stout comrades." Conan Doyle.

"Liverpool citizens congratulate the Canadians on the splendid contingent, and gratefully thank them for the substantial help given." Lord Mayor, Liverpool.

The press in England recognized the profound significance of the Canadians' arrival in its imperial aspects.

"They are the first of the empire forces to reach England," the *Morning Post* said. "They will soon be of very great value in the fighting line, . . But they are also of great value to the empire because they are the symbol of its unity and potential strength."

The *Times* declared this to be the first answer given in Europe to the Germans' egregious delusion that the Dominions would

not rally to England in this war. The troops from Canada and other Dominions were as fine material as any soldier in the world could wish to lead. "They come of the right breed," it said. "If they didn't they would not have flocked of their own free will to the flag as they have done and as they are still doing with unabated ardor. . . We welcome their assistance with gratitude and pride. We welcome it for the addition it brings to our numbers in the field, and for the exceptionally fine quality of troops it gives us, . . but far more for the incalculable moral support which it brings us in the great struggle for principles that conflict and cannot be reconciled."

The *Daily News* said their mere presence there was inspiration and assurance in itself that however long it might last there could be but one end to this struggle.

The *Western Morning News* of Plymouth editorially voiced England's first welcome thus:

To Canada belongs the immortal distinction of sending the first contingent of Dominion troops to war. Canada has always been foremost in great imperial movements, and in advance of the empire's honor. Her troops will be first in the field. We in the west had yesterday the gratification of seeing these stately ships steam into the harbor whence Gilbert set forth to discover Newfoundland, and we will greet them with greater warmth than a brother if, and when, Plymouth is officially allowed to receive them.

Canada gives us the flower of her manhood. . . They have crossed the ocean to fight for the empire, and if need be to die for the empire. As the vanguard of what promises to be a considerable army from our daughter state, which will grow in volume as the war progresses, the Canadian troops bear witness to the solidarity of the British people within the dominions of the King and bring proud answer to the arrant Germans who fancied that the British Empire was tumbling to pieces. Britain has received from Canada another sample of the "contemptible little army." These men, sons of men of Canada, who by their strong arms and alert brains have built up a sister state which promises to be the most highly developed and most prosperous country in the world, are hardy and soldierly individuals, who by nature and training are well equipped for the fray into which they are eager to plunge. The Canadian contingent will in battle prove themselves worthy of the traditions of their race and the Dominion. May the Maple Leaf distinguish itself in many battles.

On October 27th *Le Temps* of Paris referred to the arrival in England of the Canadian troops as follows:

> Today what a remarkable development in history. The Indian troops are in France, the Canadians are coming. They will come under the British flag, and that will not cause any bitterness amongst us. For they come to defend France as well as England. The blood of English-Canadians will flow for France; French-Canadians will shed blood for England. And among those who fall, none will know whether he dies for the Motherland of yesterday or that of today, for the two former rivals are closely united to protect the liberty of the world. There is, perhaps, no better lesson, no brighter chapter in the history of civilized peoples than this final reconciliation after ancient wars. It was prepared by the equal and parallel development of two liberal civilizations.

When the first Canadian soldiers reached England they were so new that men and officers only recognized the fact that they belonged to the same battalion by the numbers on their shoulder straps. The Canadian army was as cosmopolitan as Canada itself for it was composed of elements springing from many nations, yet in the first Canadian contingent about one-half were British born and between one-third and one-half were Canadian born of British parentage, with probably less than five per cent of French-Canadians, Indians, and those of foreign extraction. Later the proportion of Canadian-born volunteers became greater.

CHAPTER VIII

Achievements of Russia and Japan

On August 25th when the British forces in France were struggling out of the trap, the Russians had advanced far into East Prussia. For strategical reasons it was necessary for the Germans to reconquer the country and, besides, it was the home of the beloved junkers of the Emperor, who considered the invasion of this Province a personal insult.

General Von Hindenburg, then retired, had made the defence of East Prussia his sole hobby; he had haunted the wilderness and marshes on foot and in motor car, had investigated the marshes and shallow lakes and had got to know the country like a book. He had even experimented with driving heavy guns through certain of the shallow lakes which had hard gravel bottoms, so that, should the opportunity arise, his detailed knowledge of the country would prove most valuable.

At one time a business syndicate devised a reclamation scheme which would drain these lakes and swamps and convert them into rich agricultural districts. Von Hindenburg appealed to the Emperor, claiming that this eastern wilderness was worth to Germany many army corps and a dozen fortresses. His argument prevailed and the scheme was not gone on with.

At the outbreak of war Von Hindenburg, a man of rugged strength of frame and character, was appointed to the East Prussian command. His army consisted at the time of probably 150,000 men. Behind him he had an admirable system of strategic railways which enabled him to bring up reserves with a speed impossible to the Russians.

General Rennenkampf advanced along the railway with the army of the Niemen towards Koenigsberg. His force was dangerously divided; General Samsonov had advanced on a wide front and pressed through the western lake region to seize the crossings of the Vistula. His force of 200,000 men outnumbered Von Hindenburg's but he was compelled to move on a broad front through

the swampy region and his columns were temporarily divided from each other. The Russian Intelligence Department proved to be very defective and information obtained from spies and aviators was quite misleading.

On August 26th Samsonov found himself confronted with the main masses of Von Hindenburg's army. Hindenburg's position had been taken with unerring skill, his front line was barred by lakes and swamps and he had formed a line of improvised fortifications. Splendid railway communications behind his front enabled him to re-enforce any wing at pleasure.

The Russians attacked for several days with but little result and all their attempts to break the German line failed.

Hindenburg, hurrying tens of thousands of men northeast, threw them against the Russian flank and Samsonov was driven back into an almost roadless country, for the Germans had captured his main highways.

Trapped in the treacherous swamps and wide muddy lakes the Russian guns and horses sunk in the bogs while whole regiments were driven into the lakes and drowned in the water or bottomless mud. Samsonov's army had been five corps strong at the beginning of the fight; one corps only, and a portion of another, succeeded in making their way eastward toward the frontier. The Germans took nearly 90,000 prisoners and hundreds of guns in this battle of Tannenberg, which was a complete and decisive victory.

Von Hindenburg became the idol of the German people. With a smaller force he had outmanœuvred and enveloped a larger and his hobby of a lifetime had been vindicated.

The effect of Tannenberg had an immense influence on the war, Germany had anticipated great successes on the western front but had little faith that much would be done in the east. On the very day that news of the advance of the Germans to the gates of Paris arrived in Berlin, the report that Von Hindenburg had destroyed a Russian army and cleared East Prussia of the invaders arrived. Germany was intoxicated. Von Hindenburg was hailed as the greatest soldier of the day. The Emperor raised him to the rank of Field Marshal and an immediate advance on Warsaw was demanded by Berlin.

At this point it may be well to review shortly Russia's strategic aims. The original plan of Russia probably involved a defensive

stand on the lines of the middle Vistula, the Narev and the Niemen. She knew where her strength lay and it was obvious wisdom to let the enemy wear itself out on her vast distances, poor communications and impossible country. Under necessity of easing the position of the Allies in the west, General Rennenkampf undertook a campaign into East Prussia, with what fortune we have seen.

In mid September Von Hindenburg was busy in the East Prussian campaign, chiefly with Rennenkampf, while the Russian left wing was moving swiftly towards Cracow. The Russian aim was to lure Von Hindenburg into an impossible conflict on the Niemen, while the left wing gave the fleeing Austrians no opportunity to rally.

Von Hindenburg was trapped but saved himself before he had suffered a crushing defeat.

When Von Hindenburg reached the Niemen River the Russian artillery hidden on the low eastern shores blew his bridges to pieces. After several attempts he found the crossing impossible and, his communications not allowing of a rapid bringing up of reserves, he gave the order to retreat, which was carried out with all the old skill of the Field Marshal.

The Russians played the traditional Russian game and harassed the retreating foe whom the wilderness had betrayed. At one time it seemed as if Von Hindenburg's forces would be cut off. There was a fierce rearguard action in the woods for two days in which the Germans lost heavily in guns and prisoners, but they escaped a crushing defeat by the slenderest margin.

On the 9th of October a series of engagements, which the Russians called the battle of the Augustovo, was over, and the Germans had lost 60,000 men in killed, wounded and prisoners.

The two chief fortresses of Central Galicia are Jaroslav and Przemysl, both on the River San, and both commanding important railway routes to the west. Austria counted on Jaroslav making a stout resistance, but something went wrong and in three days it fell before the Russian attacks.

THE STRATEGIC CITY OF CRACOW

Przemysl, with a garrison of 30,000 men, resisted for a much longer time. The Grand Duke Nicholas, knowing what a Russian winter meant for armies in the field, was eager to strike a great blow

before it set in, and his armies swept on towards Cracow. This city is strategically the most important point in Eastern Europe. It stands on the edge of the Carpathians on the Vistula River, and is flanked by hills on the north and south. It was well protected by trenches and light railways with which to carry artillery, had a clear fire zone with a radius of eight miles and was manned with a garrison of 100,000 men.

Cracow is the gateway both to Vienna and Berlin and the key to Germany. Forty miles west of Cracow is the Silesian frontier. Silesia was the home of the great German territorial magnates, contained one of their chief coal and iron fields, and was one of the largest manufacturing areas of the German Empire. It yielded more than one-quarter of the German coal produced; it had the richest zinc deposits in the world and it had enormous chemical and textile factories. Consequently the mere threat of an invasion in such a closely settled, highly organized land would be felt acutely, for on the products of Silesia, scarcely less than on the products of Essen, did the life of her soldiers and civilians depend. The capture of Cracow, therefore, involved an immediate blow at the heart of Germany through one of her chief industrial centres. That is why so much importance was rightly attached to the Russian movement.

There were two other objects besides the strategic purpose in the Russian invasion of Galicia. Germany had an elaborate system of motor transport and petrol, therefore, was one of her chief munitions of war. Her immense stocks were rapidly failing, her supply from America and Russia had been cut off and her only available source was the Galician supply. It is interesting to note that the petroleum fields of Austria since 1878 have been largely developed under the superintendence of Canadian engineers. As soon as Russia, therefore, could control the Carpathian foothills she would enter into possession of the oil wells, and by cutting off Germany's petrol supply deal her a vital blow.

Hungary also was the chief source of supply of horses for the German army and a successful invasion would cut off another source of military supplies.

The Austrian commands had been recently overhauled and all the Austrian forces placed under Von Hindenburg. German staff officers were assigned to the Austrian armies. Under German supervision the defences at Cracow were strengthened and the

German right army advanced from the Posen frontier towards the northern bank of the Vistula, a movement designed to threaten the right of any Russian advance into Galicia. The German centre also moved towards Lodz and altogether it was sufficient to convince the Grand Duke Nicholas and his staff that the long-awaited German offensive in Poland would soon occur in that area. Germany did not intend to await the enemy on a line of frontier entrenchments but to fight him one hundred miles inside his border.

At this time certain defects in the provision of equipment for the Russian army became apparent. It was realized that Russia could not hope before Christmas to put the four millions into the field, which had been estimated, in the west; that, in fact, she would be fortunate if she could raise two millions.

Von Hindenburg, seeing that a stalemate had been reached in East Prussia which might continue throughout the winter, and realizing that no number of German successes would affect the critical Galician position, resolved to stake everything on a blow at the enemy's centre. One vulnerable point stood out in Western Russia in the city of Warsaw. This city was on the wrong side of the Vistula, was the centre of the scanty railway communications of Poland, and was the capital of the Russian province. It had a population of three-quarters of a million of mixed races, the like of which could not be found in Europe. If captured, it would prove excellent winter quarters from which to push far into the enemy's territory in the spring.

Hindenburg had accumulated at this time at least three-quarters of a million men, and the Austrian army, with its re-enforcements must have reached a million.

The German scheme was a general concentration along the middle Vistula, to cut the Kiev railway at Lublin and drive the Grand Duke Nicholas along the northern railways towards Petrograd. The Grand Duke, divining his intentions, played for safety in the traditional Russian style.

The Russian generalissimo left nothing to chance and he succeeded in completely misleading his adversary. The Germans advanced deliberately, making excellent roads as they went, and levelling great stretches of forest to make corduroy paths over the marshes for transport and artillery. They even altered the gauge of the Lodz-Warsaw railway, and, as Von Hindenburg advanced,

his supplies were brought up by motor transport from his own railheads.

The Grand Duke was prepared for Hindenburg on a line of entrenchments well to the west of Warsaw. He had no intention of allowing the heavy Skoda howitzers to be brought within reach of the Capital.

The fight for Warsaw began on August 18th and failed. By the beginning of November the long German front had been broken into two pieces which fled southwest and westward. As Von Hindenburg retreated he left a desert behind him; the roads laboriously made a few weeks before and the railways were mined. Telegraph wires were cut, posts broken and everything possible destroyed. Von Hindenburg was maturing a new scheme which depended upon a devastated Poland, and all of it except the northern portion was left a wilderness. His assault on Warsaw had failed decisively and his retreat had been attended with heavy losses.

The lure of Cracow to the Russians was naturally great. The Russian general staff were well aware of the dangers of campaigning in Poland though they had not divined all that was in Von Hindenburg's mind. They realized that, if Cracow was to be won by a Galician advance, an army must move also through Poland on its right flank. They hoped to keep Von Hindenburg busy defending the Posen frontier while one of their generals dealt with the great fortress. The Russian infantry moved forward slowly along the damaged Russian roads. The Grand Duke did not discover the fact that the German commander had left the Northern Polish communications in good shape.

Von Hindenburg had meanwhile been strongly re-enforced, and probably now had no less than 800,000 men. His advance against the Grand Duke began on a front of forty miles between the Warta and the River Vistula. The objective was once again to be Warsaw, and was to be secured by a sudden blow at the right of the Russian centre, it being argued that with broken railways and ruined roads that centre could neither be quickly re-enforced or easily retire.

The Russian position was a bad one. They were holding a line of nearly a thousand miles with forces of not more than two millions and their line presented a dozen points of weakness. It is doubtful whether the Russian right centre had more than 200,000

men. The fights in the second attack upon Warsaw were the last, for a considerable time, of the genuine battles of manœuvre.

In a season of heavy mists Von Hindenburg launched his attack and the much inferior Russian army slowly gave way. Realizing that speed was the essence of his plan, Von Hindenburg pressed on and, under Von Mackensen, drove the Russians before him until their front split in two. It was a perilous moment, but at the supreme crisis the Russians were re-enforced by troops from Siberia, who attacked in the centre, cut off the apex of the German wedge and re-established the Russian line. The result was that in the German wedge, consisting of two army corps, there were about 60,000 Germans remaining in a kind of sack bulging deep into the Russian line. Desperate efforts were made by the Russians to close in the mouth of the sack and entrap the Germans, but the effort failed and Von Mackensen succeeded in broadening the mouth of the pocket by pushing back the flanking Russians.

In the frantic struggle, which lasted from the 24th to the 26th, the Germans lost terribly, many companies being reduced to a fifth of their strength, and others so broken that they had to leave the fighting line.

The German army, failing in the centre, then attempted an enveloping movement which really proved a failure, though large numbers of Russian prisoners and many guns fell into the hands of the enemy.

The Russians entrenched themselves on a front against which the enemy's assaults broke in vain. The situation paralleled that on the western front and the German force expended itself in vain against the entrenched positions of our Allies. The Germans attacked with great vigor, for Von Hindenburg desired the Polish Capital as a Christmas present for his Emperor, but no valour on earth could carry that line. Warsaw was only thirty-five miles off and her citizens, within sound of the guns, slept peacefully as if they had been a thousand miles away. By Christmas the German attack had died away and the winter stalemate on the east had arrived as it had six weeks earlier on the western front.

The Russian achievement had been most remarkable. The outbreak of hostilities had found her with her army re-organization incomplete and with a serious shortage of equipment. She had to bring her men by slender railway communications thousands of

miles, and she was ready to strike two weeks before Germany anticipated she could. Her invasion of East Prussia did much to relieve the strain in the west, but she paid heavily for it. After the battle of Tannenberg she made no mistakes. Von Hindenburg had been enticed to the Niemen and then driven back to disaster at Augustova, while in Galicia, Lemberg and all eastern Galicia were won and in two mighty battles three Austrian armies had been heavily beaten. The Russian generals had shown that rarest of combinations—omnipresent sense of a great strategic objective and a power of patiently biding their time and relinquishing territory or cities when prudence demanded it.

The Grand Duke Nicholas proved that he possessed that highest of military gifts, the power of renunciation, the cutting of losses and the sacrificing of the less to the more essential.

JAPAN'S EFFORT IN THE WAR

Japan was bound by treaty with Great Britain to come to her aid in case of war. On August 4th Japan received a note from Great Britain requesting her to safeguard British shipping in eastern waters. Since Germany was in occupation of the Chinese Province of Tsing-Tau it was agreed between the two allied powers that Japan should remove this German menace by seizing the Chinese Province for the time being, returning it to China after the war.

Accordingly, on August 15th, Japan demanded of Germany that she disarm her warships and hand over the Province of Tsing-Tau. No reply having been received before the ultimatum expired, Japan declared war on Germany.

On August 27th the Japanese seized some of the small armaments at the mouth of the Kiao-Chow harbour and swept up the surrounding mines. On September 2d they landed troops at the base of the peninsula at the end of which Tsing-Tau was situated, and cut off that fortress from the mainland.

On November 6th, after a week of bombardment, the prize German colony of the Pacific hoisted the white flag and capitulated, much to the chagrin of Germany. Japan in this affair had only 236 men killed and lost a small third-class cruiser. Thereafter Japan's part consisted in patrolling the Pacific, the China Sea and Indian Ocean, thereby allowing British warships to be drawn

closer to home waters. Later on she also sent a destroyer squadron to assist the Allies in the Mediterranean. In supplying Russia with huge quantities of guns, ammunition, stores, hospital and Red Cross supplies, Japan was of incalculable assistance in making it possible for the Russian armies to carry on the war against tremendous odds, particularly in the first year. By this action they

Germany's Great Port in China, Captured by the Allies

greatly helped to ease the attacks on the Western Russian front and contributed materially to the ultimate fall of the Central Powers.

During the last year of the war Japanese, British and American troops co-operated in protecting vast stores of ammunition from being seized by the Russian Bolsheviki and helped to preserve order in Siberia.

CHARGING WITH A SMOKE BARRAGE

One of the devices which confused and terrified the Germans was the smoke barrage produced by specially thrown smoke bombs. Through this thick screen of vapour which precluded any accurate aim at our advancing lines, wave after wave of soldiers of the Empire would suddenly sweep over the German trenches in an irresistible attack.

Photo by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

CANADA'S GLORIOUS FIRST CONTINGENT

The Dominion's instant response to the call sent regiment after regiment piling across the seas, establishing a remarkable record of defying the submarines. This picture shows Canadian troops after arrival in England drilling on Salisbury plain preparatory to a review by King George.

CHAPTER IX

The Canadians on Salisbury Plain

On the 11th October the Canadians landed at Plymouth. A few days later the whole of the 33,000 men were more or less settled on Salisbury Plain. The Canadian force was divided into four distinct camps, miles apart. One infantry brigade and the headquarters staff were stationed at Bustard camp, another section was camped two miles away at West Down South, a third established itself at West Down North, still further away, and the fourth at Pond Farm about five miles from Bustard. Water supplies and arrangements for administration made these divisions necessary.

The Plains of Salisbury are ideal for summer military camps. They are rolling prairie-like lands stretching for miles and broken only by occasional farmhouses or plantations of trees called spinneys. A thin layer of earth and turf covers the chalk which is hundreds of feet in depth; at any point a blow with a pick will uncover the white chalk filled with black flints. The hills forming the borders of Salisbury Plains rise sharply from the surface of Wiltshire, and Salisbury Plain itself may be easily distinguished miles away by the white water-worn rifts in its hillsides.

The Canadians were soon settled on this fine camping ground, tents were pitched, canteens opened, work begun and the Canadian contingent settled down perhaps somewhat impatiently to the further training necessary before they crossed the Channel to Flanders.

On November 4th, the King and Queen Mary, accompanied by a large staff and by F. M. Lord Kitchener, F. M. Lord Roberts, Hon. H. C. Perley, Sir Richard McBride and others visited the camp. The royal party was met by General Alderson and his staff and at Bustard by Colonel Mercer who was in charge of that camp. The King inspected the troops with interest and on the following day His Majesty issued this address:—

It gives me great pleasure to take this opportunity of welcoming to the Mother Country such a fine contingent of troops from the Dominion

of Canada. Their prompt rally to the empire's call is of inestimable value both to the fighting strength of my army and in the evidence which it gives of the solidarity of the empire. The general appearance and physical standard of the different units are highly creditable. I am glad to hear of the serious and earnest spirit which pervades all ranks, for it is only by careful training and leading on the part of the officers and by efficiency, strict discipline and co-operation on the part of all that the demands of modern war can be met. I shall follow with interest the progress and work of my Canadians.

On November 9th 350 Canadians were invited to share in the Lord Mayor's historic procession under command of Colonel V. A. S. Williams. All branches of the force were represented and the Strathcona and Princess Patricia units were placed around the state coach. The crowds lining the streets gave the Canadians an enthusiastic reception.

About the middle of November the rain settled down in earnest and did not cease for a month. The constant tramp of many feet churned into mud the clay turf overlaying the chalk. The rain could not percolate this mixture as it did the unbroken sod and in a few days the mud was from a few inches to a foot and a half deep.

The smooth English roads which traversed Salisbury Plain, lacking depth of road metal, were quickly torn to pieces by the heavy traffic of motor lorries and steam traction engines; passing cars and lorries sprayed the hedges with this mud emulsion which was constantly being formed by the traffic, and the sharp flints which were exposed tore motor tires to pieces like so much broken glass.

Cold high winds, saturated with moisture, accompanied the rain, and the Canadians, though accustomed to a severe climate, felt the cold in England as they never had before. Tents were blown down by hundreds in the gales and the discomforts sometimes became almost unbearable. The tents were wet all the time, the clothes and blankets of the men became water-soaked and remained so for long periods at a time. There were no stoves or other facilities for drying purposes. But necessity is the mother of invention and the Canadian soldier soon learned that he could keep warm by the simple process of wrapping himself in wet blankets and steaming as he would in a Turkish bath with himself as the heater. He also made the discovery that a pair of wet socks well wrung out and

placed next his chest at night would be almost dry in the morning.

It became almost impossible to do any training; even route-marching was not feasible when it meant another drenching for the men and, as a result, the Canadian contingent began a process of disintegration. Men began to grouse at the conditions and it was only when an epidemic of influenza, speedily developing into an epidemic of spinal meningitis occurred that an attempt was made to ameliorate the astonishingly bad conditions. The morale of the men, under these depressing conditions, began to go and large numbers of them moved into the little villages round about in an endeavour to get dry and have a few hours comfort before being arrested and returned to camp.

It must be remembered that large numbers of the private soldiers in the First Canadian Contingent were college graduates and wealthy business men in Canada who refused to accept a situation which seemed to them both unnecessary, useless and dangerous. They knew that there were scores of little villages and towns in the vicinity of Salisbury Plain which could well be used for billeting purposes, and when no move was made they attempted to solve the problem for themselves. Under the conditions the military authorities were hard put to it to control the situation, and day after day motor lorries returned loaded with men under arrest for trying to obtain a few hours of comfort and rest. With the alarm occasioned by the outbreak of meningitis the authorities at the war office were at last awakened to the seriousness of the situation, and the huts at Lark Hill, designed for the accommodation of Canadian troops, began to go up much faster, while the Canadian artillery and many other units were billeted in the little villages adjoining the Plain. It was difficult to recognize in the happy, clean and smiling individuals in billets the grousing, dirty, unkempt individuals of the Plains. At no time afterwards in France did the Canadians experience anything like the discomfort and misery they experienced in midwinter in the south of England.

On November 20th there were 150 in the Canadian hospital at Bulford Manor; three weeks later there were 780.

With the outbreak of meningitis a laboratory was established and through it an endeavour was made to control the epidemic, hopeless as the medical authorities knew it to be. Nevertheless

the epidemic was not an unmixed evil; it educated both combatant officers and men as to the necessity of observing the underlying principles necessary to prevent the spread of any contagious disease. It also showed them that a disease once out of hand could play greater havoc than a German attack.

One infantry brigade which was kept moving about all winter in tents, which were pitched every few days on clean sod, did not have as much sickness as some of the others which were housed in defective huts with sealed windows, open floors and provided with stoves.

Early in January the weather conditions improved, training was begun once more and a very rapid improvement became apparent in the men. Singing was heard again in the tents at night and on route-marches and smiling faces once more appeared everywhere. The division rapidly rounded into shape and in February it quietly disappeared at night and passed over the Channel.

Lord Roberts in November made his last public appearance before the Canadians and addressing the men said in part:

> Three months ago we found ourselves involved in this war, a war not of our own seeking, but one which those who have studied Germany's literature and Germany's aspirations knew was a war which we should inevitably have to deal with sooner or later. The prompt resolve of Canada to give us such valuable assistance has touched us deeply. . . . we are fighting a nation which looks upon the British Empire as a barrier to her development and has long contemplated our overthrow and humiliation. To attain that end she has manufactured a magnificent fighting machine and is straining every nerve to gain victory . . . it is only by the most determined efforts that we can defeat her.

It was this superb German military organization created by years of tireless effort, which Canadian civilians had volunteered to fight. Was it any wonder that some of the most able Canadian and British leaders doubted whether men and officers, no matter how intelligent, could ever equal the inspired barbarians, who even at that particular moment were battling with the finest British and French regulars in a struggle for the Channel forts?

BATTLE OF THE AISNE

During this period in which the Canadians were undergoing their training in Valcartier and enduring the horrors of Salisbury weather stirring events had been happening in Flanders. The

German march on Paris had been stopped at the Marne and the Allies assuming the offensive had driven the Germans back to the Aisne.

Here the Germans established themselves in positions which had been prepared by parties of sappers left behind for the purpose during the great sweep toward Paris. Trenches were dug along the crest of the plateau about two miles from the river. The height of the plateau, with its projecting spurs commanded not only the river and most of the roads but gave wonderful opportunities for enfilading fire.

On September 13th the allied troops were halted before this barrier and made a frontal attack which lasted until September 18th without successfully breaking the German line. It was a hard fought battle, in which the British alone sustained 12,980 casualties, but apparently inflicted about 50,000 casualties on the Germans. General Joffre seeing the futility of sacrificing men in a continued frontal attack of this kind, decided to extend his left flank to envelop Von Kluck's right flank. This flanking strategy was met by the Germans who extended their line to outstrip our movement, with the result that there began that great and remarkable race for the North Sea, in which each army struggled desperately to outflank the other.

The reasons for adopting this practice were simple enough. It was quickly realized that fresh levies could hold trenches against the finest troops and it was therefore to the advantage of both armies to settle into trench-warfare until they could reconstitute their armies afresh and develop new ones. Besides it appeared as though, baulked in her attempt to seize Paris and destroy the French army, Germany might make a strong effort to render England powerless by siege and attacks from the French Channel ports. Germany was now hemmed in from Switzerland northward and if the one open stretch in Flanders could be closed by a continuous line of trenches Germany would be completely bottled up on her southern boundaries.

It was an interesting race. The British army, naturally wishing to cut down her long lines of communication and be near the Channel ports, was moved from the centre to the northern end of the French battle line. The British were just in time to meet the German force which had invested Antwerp and many new

German corps pouring over the Flanders plain towards the Channel ports of Calais and Boulogne. The meeting resulted in some of the bloodiest fighting of the whole war and once more showed that the regular British infantryman was unexcelled as a fighting man and was in hand-to-hand combat the equal of several Germans.

THE RACE FOR THE CHANNEL

The character of the country upon which the impending battles were to be fought is of interest in explaining their nature. On the south the Plateau of Albert rises between the River Somme and Scarpe. It is a typical Picardy upland of hedgeless roads, unfenced fields, lines of formal trees and here and there a stream. At its northern limit Arras lies among hills which sweep northwestward to the Channel, while the plain of the Scheldt River and its tributaries which included most of the British line is everywhere of intolerable flatness. A few low swells break its monotony such as the Mons de Cats, the respectable height of Cassel and the modest undulations south of Ypres and La Bassée, but in general it is as flat as a tennis lawn, intersected by innumerable sluggish rivers, canals and railways.

Ten miles north of Arras at the town of Lens the coal mining region of France begins. There the roads are lined with houses and factories and everywhere the headgear of collieries rise as in Lancashire.

Towards Ypres it is a country of market gardens where every inch is closely tilled and the land is carefully laid out like a chessboard. Towards the sea from Ypres we pass to a low-lying region traversed by innumerable canals where the soil seems to be a compromise between land and water. Near the sea is the great barrier of sand dunes through which the waterways of the interior pass by a number of sea canals into the shallow waters of the North Sea.

On this line the Allies, on the 20th October, awaited the attack of the enemy as they had done two months before on the Sambre and the Meuse. Now, as then, they were outnumbered; now, as then, they did not know the enemy's strength, and again their initial strategy had failed. The fall of Antwerp had destroyed the hope of holding the line of the Scheldt while the German occupation of La Bassée and Lille had spoiled any possibility of a turning movement against the German right. The Allies had two advantages

over their position of October 20th and that of August 21st; their flanks were secure and they had now taken the full measure of the enemy.

The German staff had decided that the Channel ports must be won at all cost. They thought that the capture of Calais and Boulogne would gravely alarm public opinion in Britain and interfere with the sending of new troops whom they seriously dreaded in spite of official scepticism. With the coast in their possession they hoped to mount great guns which would command half the width of the narrows of the Channel. Under their range of fire they could lay mine fields and prepare a base for a future invasion of England. Such a measure they argued would complicate the task of the British fleet, which would then be compelled to watch two hostile bases, and, in such a division of task, the chance might come for a naval battle in which Germany would prove numerically superior.

If the allied front could be pierced at La Bassée, or still better at Arras, a section of the allied armies would be cut off and penned between the enemy and the sea. If successful a large part of the opponents' strength would be finally destroyed and a magnificent line of communications to the coast opened up. The third path along the shores by Nieuport would not be nearly so valuable; success there would simply mean that the allied left would be driven back inland, while the line of communications along the coast would be a poor one.

The importance of Arras, La Bassée, Ypres and Nieuport must be kept constantly in mind in following the campaign. East of Ypres our line bent forward in a bold salient which obviously provided a base for flank attacks upon any force advancing across the Yser and through La Bassée. Arras and La Bassée were the points where a successful piercing movement would have results of the highest strategic value in placing the whole allied left wing in deadly jeopardy. Ypres was a salient which if left alone, would endanger any German advance, while the Nieuport route would give a short though difficult passage to Calais and would turn the Allies' flank, though perhaps not seriously.

It is a sound rule in warfare that strength should not be dissipated. It is hard, therefore, to explain the course which the Germans now actually followed. They attacked almost simulta-

neously at all four points and for three weeks they desperately persisted in these attacks.

Had the movement against Arras succeeded all would have been won and the salient at Ypres would have only meant the more certain destruction of the British army. Had the attack upon La Bassée proved successful the same result would have been attained though the success would not have been as marked. Had even the worst of the three roads been chosen and the coast route cleared the allied flank must have fallen back from Ypres and La Bassée. It is therefore hard to understand why all four points should have been attacked with equal violence when either of the first two would have given possession to the others. Possibly the enemy was confident that his numerical superiority was sufficient to carry all four positions: the future alone will tell what was in the mind of the German staff.

The fighting on the Yser merged towards the south in the fighting at Ypres. The struggle for Ypres was closely connected with the battle raging from La Bassée to the Lys and this in turn was influenced by the fate of the left wing of the French army north of Lens.

THE FALL OF ANTWERP

When Brussels was threatened in August the Belgian Court had retired inside the Antwerp lines and during the first week of September the Belgian army made several gallant sallies from behind its defences.

On September 27th the German siege howitzers had come within range of the southern forts of Antwerp and the bombardment had begun. The Belgian army which had been fighting for nearly two months was now under 100,000 men and it was vastly outgunned by the enemy.

Antwerp could not be invested because of its proximity to the sea and the Dutch frontier. Its series of forts, which were only a partial protection, would quickly fall under the concentrated attacks of heavy howitzers. Germany desired the capture of Antwerp for several reasons, the chief of which was that it sheltered a hostile army on the German flank and was therefore an intolerable nuisance.

The forts soon fell before modern siege artillery and the fight for Antwerp became something of a field battle. When the popu-

lation realized that the fall of the city was inevitable there was great depression, which was changed to joy when, on October 4th, 2,000 British Royal marines with several naval guns arrived, followed the next day by 6,000 more. The Belgians believing that Britain was sending further re-enforcements, of which these were but the beginning, became greatly elated. On October 6th, however, the city at last realized the truth; the British troops could not delay the inevitable and there was no hope of further re-enforcements.

On October 7th the Belgians and allied legations boarded steamers and passed down the Scheldt to the coast of France. The great oil tanks were set on fire and a great exodus of refugees began. On the morning of October 7th Antwerp contained about half a million people; by the evening a quarter of a million had gone and by the following night the place was as solitary as a desert. Many refugees travelled by water ferries, trawlers, pleasure yachts and fishing boats; even rafts were used. On land thousands of refugees crossed the Scheldt by a bridge of boats, and by ferry and fled to Ghent; most of them took the road which ran to the Dutch frontier. Over 200,000 exiles were received by the Dutch from this quarter and were kindly looked after and sheltered by the Dutch people.

On the evening of October 8th the defence of the city was at an end, the garrison had fallen back and most of it had crossed over the Scheldt. About 18,000 of the Belgian troops were driven into Holland, 1,800 British were missing or became prisoners of war and about 1,600 were interned in Holland.

This operation of despatching British soldiers to Antwerp was widely condemned. The numbers were not sufficient; their training was rudimentary, and altogether it was considered to be a side-show. On the other hand it was claimed to be part of a larger scheme to occupy the country between Ostend and Antwerp and deflect the new German front. Early in October the Seventh division of the Fourth army corps under Sir Henry Rawlinson had landed at Zeebruge and did invaluable work in covering the Belgian retreat.

The Seventh division finally linked up with the main British army in front of Ypres and the Belgians formed part of the new line from the coast to the French army which filled in the gap between the British and the Belgians.

THE BATTLE OF THE YSER

The Belgian army which had been retreating for days now consisted of cnly about 40,000 men, intensely battle-weary. The part of the line which they were to defend was the Yser and its devious water courses. They were supported by two divisions only of French territorials and a brigade of French marines. They were attacked by not less than 60,000 men and would probably have been pushed back from the Yser and the road opened up to Calais when help arrived from an unexpected quarter.

British monitors in the Channel enfiladed the German right on the sand dunes. The German commander brought his heavy guns into action against the British ships, but they were outranged and several batteries destroyed. For ten days the strange warfare continued, the monitors being re-enforced by old war craft of little value. The naval guns swept the country for six miles inland, the German right flank was pushed away from the coast and the German attack along the Yser was possible only beyond the range of the leviathans of the sea.

The Germans, now re-enforced, struggled desperately for the passage, while the Belgians, also re-enforced, steadily opposed them. Yard by yard the allies were driven back among the dykes and miry fields, when the Belgians, playing their last card, broke down the dykes and inundated the flat meadows. The Yser spread itself over the whole country to the depth of several feet and many Germans caught in the tide were drowned. The attack had failed disastrously, the Emperor who had watched the operations through his glasses shut them up and turned away. Thus ended the struggle for the shortest route to Calais.

LA BASSÉE

The Germans with the Crown Prince of Bavaria in command held La Bassée. Smith-Dorrien at first attempted an offensive, but from the 20th onward his whole energies were devoted to maintain his ground and blocking the passage to Bethune and the west.

The attack on La Bassée lasted for ten days and the Second corps, constantly under fire, had become exhausted when re-enforcements arrived in the Lahore division of the Indian corps. The struggle continued until the end of the month when the Meerut

division arrived and took over the line. For the next three weeks the Indian corps resisted repeated attacks of the enemy which gradually slackened off owing to the concentration against Ypres.

BATTLE OF ARRAS

The most dangerous attack of all was that delivered from October 20th to October 26th at Arras. Von Buelow now in full strength and re-enforced by the Prussian Guards, aimed to cut the allied line in two and win the roads to Doullens and Amiens. In such case, not only would the Channel ports fall to him, but he would recover the northern road to Paris and achieve the main German objective, which was to split the allied line into two parts and drive them asunder by broadening the wedge.

General Maud'Huy, the commander of the French army, on which the blow fell, resisted most stubbornly. All attempts to break the French line failed and by the 26th Maud'Huy had begun to retaliate. Arras, which had been practically destroyed in the struggle, was freed from the German threat by repeated attacks of the French, which widened the circle about the city until it was finally beyond the reach of the German howitzers.

By November 1st the attack had failed and some of Von Buelow's best corps, including a division of guards, passed on to the north where, in front of Ypres, was being fought the longest, bloodiest, and most desperate combat in the history of the British armies.

FIRST BATTLE OF YPRES

The little city of Ypres stands on a tiny stream, the Yperlee, a tributary of the Yser. No Flemish town could boast a prouder history and though only a shell of its former grandeur, its noble cloth hall, dating from the twelfth century, testified to its vanished mercantile pre-eminence. To the east there were considerable patches of forest between Bixschoote and the Lys valley; to the south was a series of slight ridges from Messines to Zandevoorde. The rest of the country is a dead flat over which the spires of Ypres stood out forming a landmark for miles around. In all directions from the town radiated the cobbled Flemish roads, the two main highways on the east being those to Roullers and to Menin, with an important cross road cutting the river five miles from Ypres at the village of Gheluveldt.

On the evening of the 19th the allied offensive had virtually ceased. The Allies were aware that at last they had reached the main German front. Everywhere in Flanders the German armies daily growing in numbers threatened to fall in a tidal wave upon the thin and far-stretched allied line.

In the great battle which began on and lasted till the British First and Third corps, the Seventh division, Allenby's cavalry crops and Byngs' Third cavalry division were chiefly involved.

The first battle of Ypres must rank as one of the most remarkable contests of the war. It is certainly one of the most remarkable in the record of the British army. Between Lille and the east, the Germans had not less than one million men; six of their fourteen army corps were first line troops and even the new formations were terrible in assault, more terrible perhaps than veteran soldiers, for they were still unwearied and the edge of their keenness was undulled. Those immature German boys and elderly men, who often went to pieces before our counter-attacks, came on with incredible fury in their early charges. Against that part of the force which faced us we had an army of 100,000 which never became more than 150,000.

In the actual salient of Ypres the British had three divisions and some cavalry during the worst part of the fighting to meet five army corps, three of which were of the first line. For two days one division, the Seventh, held a front of eight miles against three army corps.

During the mad struggle, which at times became hopelessly mixed, officers gathered and flung into the breach whatever men they could find. Subalterns found themselves in command of battalions, brigadiers in command of companies or divisions as the fates ordered. At one moment a certain brigadier had not less than thirteen battalions under him.

Sir Henry Rawlinson in an order issued to the Seventh division said:

> After the deprivations and tension of being pursued day and night by an infinitely stronger force the division had to pass through the worst ordeal of all. It was left to the little force of 12,000 to keep the German army at bay while the other British corps were being brought up from the Aisne. Here they hung on like grim death with almost every man in the trenches, holding a line which of necessity was a great deal too long—a

thin exhausted line against which the prime of the German first line troops were hurling themselves with fury. The odds against them were about eight to one, and, when once the enemy found the range of a trench, the shells dropped into it from one end to the other with terrible effect; yet the men stood firm and defended Ypres in such a manner that a German officer afterwards described their action as a brilliant feat of arms and said that they were under the impression that there had been four British army corps against them at this point. When the division was afterwards withdrawn from the fighting line to refit itself it was found that out of 400 officers who set out from England there were only 44 left and out of 12,000 men only 2,336.

Ypres was a soldiers' battle won by dogged fighting qualities of the rank and file rather than by any great tactical brilliance. There was no room or time for ingenious tactics.

Rarely in the history of war do we find a great army checked and bewildered by one a fifth of its size. It was a seemingly hopeless stand against a torrential invasion and it is to the eternal honour of our men that they did not break and of their leaders that they did not despair.

The cost of Ypres was high, the German casualties were stated to have been not less than 250,000 in the three weeks' battle. The allied force from Albert to Nieuport lost well over 100,000 men. In the Ypres fighting alone the British lost at least 40,000. The total loss to the combatants was not far from the losses of the North during the whole of the American Civil War.

Whole battalions like the First Coldstreams, the Second Royal Scots Fusiliers, the Second Wiltshires and the First Camerons practically disappeared. One divisional general, two brigadiers, a dozen staff officers and the colonels of eighteen battalions were lost. Scarcely a house famous in British history but mourned a son.

Ypres was a decisive victory and achieved its purpose. The allied line stood secure from the Oise River to the sea. A flanking movement and attempts to pierce the allied line had both failed and the enemy's short-lived initiative was over. He was now compelled to adopt the form of battle we had determined, with the keenness taken from his ardour and with great gaps in his ranks. Had we failed he would have won the Channel ports, destroyed the allied left and the war would have taken on an entirely new character. Ypres was in a special sense a British achievement. Without

the Belgians on the Yser and the French at Arras the case of course would have been hopeless but the most critical task fell to the British troops. They opposed the blood and iron of the German onslaught with a stronger blood and a finer steel. It would be invidious to select special troops for praise; the cavalry, the howitzer brigades, the infantry and the artillery together with the yeomanry and territorial battalions were all beyond praise.

It was within the sound of the guns roaring around Ypres that Lord Roberts passed away. This greatest of British soldiers on a visit to his beloved Indian troops contracted a chill, pleurisy followed and on Saturday the 14th the end came. It was peculiarly fitting that the master-gunner should die within the sound of his guns and that the most adored of British soldiers should have his passing amid the army he had loved so well. He had given his best to the service of the country and had foregone his well-earned rest to preach the lessons of wisdom to ears that refused to listen. His career was an inspiration both as a soldier and a man. He died, as he had lived, in harness.

TURKEY IN THE WAR

When diplomatic relations between Austria and Serbia were broken, Turkey stated that she would remain neutral. Her position was that the results of the war might pass beyond the limits of the conflict between the warring countries and that her interests might be materially affected. She intended to remain neutral but would, when possible, take advantage of opportunity by diplomatic means. The Turks stated that they would also be forced to safeguard their interest and their frontiers and the Turkish mobilization was at once begun. Almost immediately Turkey received word that two battleships in course of construction for her in British shipyards had been taken over by England, and, in consequence, a certain amount of feeling was aroused against England which was carefully nourished by her enemies.

Turkey for a century had been on good terms with France and Great Britain; Russia had been her hereditary enemy. She had been recently defeated by the Balkan Powers and naturally she wished to recover her lost provinces in Europe.

German intrigue for some years previous to the outbreak of war had achieved a great influence in Turkey. Von Sanders, a

German general, was practically in control of the Turkish army which had been remodelled on the mechanical German system.

Upon declaration of war between Germany and Russia, Turkey declared the Bosporus and Dardanelles closed to all kinds of shipping; at the same time she mined the entrance to these channels. These measures effectually prevented the Russian Black Sea fleet from getting out while it prevented any possibility of the allied naval forces getting in.

During September the Turkish Government became increasingly warlike and an active campaign against England and the Allies was maintained in the Turkish press. Great efforts were made by Turkey to secure Rumanian and Bulgarian co-operation The Allies countered by offering to Bulgaria Thrace and Adrianople; to Greece they offered Smyrna and to Rumania the Rumanian provinces in Austria. Agreement between these Powers was made impossible through jealousy of one another and nothing came of it.

On 27th October the Turkish and Russian fleets came to blows and the Turks claimed the destruction of a number of German vessels. War was at once declared against England, Russia and France by the Sultan who proclaimed a Holy War. It was hoped that by this proclamation three hundred millions of Moslems would be induced to rise, and visions of the overthrow of British rule in India were clearly visible to the German general staff. Nothing came of it however, and the Holy War, as such, was a fiasco.

On November 5th Great Britain declared war against Turkey, seized all Turkish vessels in British ports and annexed the island of Cyprus. On the 17th December Egypt was formally declared a British protectorate since the Khedive had thrown in his lot with the Turks.

Turkey found herself unable to make any move to recover her provinces in Thrace since Greece and Bulgaria were neutral.

CHAPTER X

The Princess Patricias in Action

At the end of November, 1914, after the German failure to break through the Channel ports, the struggle in the west degenerated into a stalemate. During the winter that followed, the allied armies, still outnumbered and outgunned, were organizing their forces of men and material and were not yet ready for a general attack. France and Britain had not their reserves ready but every day brought them closer. The allied inaction was, in one way, a form of offensive, because delay meant that the allied forces must increase and Germany's decrease. By frequent local attacks the new armies being gathered together on the western front were being trained in actual warfare. Germany was prevented from concentrating in force against any one part of the allied line, and troops which might have been sent eastward were detained.

It was a war of attrition and meant that German losses must be considerably greater than ours because of the nature of the German fighting methods.

In January, 1915, the experts calculated that Germany had reached her maximum in man power. The Allies were far from their climax; the new British armies, training since September 1914, were slowly beginning to arrive on the western front, three new French armies were being formed and new Russian millions were in course of organization.

It was expected generally that the Germans would strike in the west. On the contrary, after withdrawing one corps from the western front, and creating five new formations she made a violent attack upon the Russian front.

All along the Franco-British front during these winter and early spring months of 1915 the Allies nibbled away at the German line, seizing an important bit of trench here, a small but important hillock there, flattening out a small salient in another place and in general considerably improving their line. None of the gains were large enough to be represented on the ordinary map, but on

VICTORIOUS PRINCESS PAT'S

General Sir Henry Horne, accompanied by the Mayor of Mons, inspecting Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry after the brilliant recapture of the city. The Mayor presented the Canadian Seventh Infantry Brigade with the keys of Mons, and General Currie presented the Canadian Corps' flag to the town.

RUSHING THE GERMAN LINES AT ST. ELOI

Glorious charge on the German trenches through the enemy barrage and barbed wire.

the whole they amounted to a great deal when the time came for the Allies to make an attack on a large scale. These series of attacks which are too numerous and complicated to give in detail were singular in the remarkable series of heroic actions by individuals. In "No Man's Land," at night raiding parties would meet one another and struggles of the most fiendish description took place in which all forms of warfare were forgotten and men fighting without the usual bayonets, knives or clubs, swayed to and fro, locked in each other's arms, endeavouring to choke or incapacitate the other, like savages in the early dawn of the "civilized" world.

It is interesting to note that no matter whether the Allies or the Germans attacked, the losses of the enemy were by far the greater. As an example, the battle of Soissons was made a great deal of by the enemy, but was of little real significance. In it the French lost 5,000 men and some guns; the Germans lost twice that number and but slightly improved their position.

Further down in the Champagne the French made an attack on a large scale having for their object the threatening of German lateral communications as well as detaining a large number of troops which might otherwise have been sent to re-enforce Hindenburg in the great struggle on the Niemen. The general advance preceded by violent artillery bombardment of the German positions began on February 16th, and, though not successful in achieving its ostensible object, it drew into action five and a half German corps which suffered severely, while Von Einem was compelled to call for reserves which would otherwise have gone to the Russian front or remained in Flanders. During that offensive 10,000 German dead were buried and 2,000 prisoners taken.

The War of Attrition from the North Sea to Verdun was successful in reducing the enemy's strength of men and material and in preventing him from sending troops to the Russian frontier. The French efforts in Alsace and the Woevre, besides having their local value, won positions which were very valuable to France when the time came for the great advance to be made.

Only those on the British front during the late winter of 1914–15 realized how thinly the line was held and how few reserves there were to repel the enemy in case of an attack. Nature, by converting the surface of the ground into a sea of mud, made any

serious attack impossible in the Flanders area. Day after day as I traversed the ill paved and muddy roads of Flanders I met troops, weary, caked with mud and soaking wet, slithering over the slimy cobblestones or splashing through the pools of slime and water with their heavy packs and rifles. And as they marched along with that peculiar bent-kneed, inelastic stride so characteristic of infantrymen they almost invariably sang some music-hall ditty. They sang because they were going back to some heaven in billets where they would be clean and dry and happy for a few days before their next turn in the trenches.

TRENCH WARFARE

After the first battle of Ypres in late November, the British people particularly were most optimistic. The English press published victorious headlines stating that the allied armies on the western front had been victorious. Soldiers returning on leave were amazed and exasperated at the calmness of the British people before they discovered it to be due to ignorance. The censorship which concealed from the British people their wonderful and glorious military exploits had robbed the people of that exaltation of national spirit which makes it possible to create armies and win battles.

As the stalemate developed, the shallow, hastily-dug trenches were developed into elaborate excavations, revetted with wire and willow fencing. Along these trenches shelters or dugouts, protected by coverings of wooden beams or iron, layers of brick and earth, were excavated for the protection of the fighters. Eventually the trench system became a series of ramifications of ditches and earthworks defended by barbed wire entanglements and other devices, such as the local conditions might suggest.

An advanced trench consisted of a ditch, not more than two feet wide, with a recess every few yards so that troops during an attack could not be enfiladed. Sometimes these trenches were completely separated from one another but this was not the custom. The front line trenches were at least five feet deep and were usually held lightly. The communication trenches passing to the rear at some convenient angle also zigzagged in order to prevent enfilading fire.

Behind the front line trenches were reserve trenches and in

some cases even third line trenches, while away back from the front line area stretched other lines of trenches prepared in case of a retreat. The communication trenches led to points on the road or into some cellar or other position where the men emerging were protected from the gaze of the enemy.

The floors of the trenches were usually covered with wooden duck-boards which prevented the men from sinking too deeply into the mud. Firing took place from the advanced trenches and sniping was usually done through loopholes frequently directed by periscopes.

As one combatant crept towards the other, saps were run out and new lateral trenches built off from these. Mining was a constant feature on both sides. Tunnels were dug in the ground and carried forward under the enemy lines, quantities of explosives were placed in these and sections of enemy trenches blown up. All day long snipers were busy picking off the unwary, who were careless enough to show themselves above ground.

It was interesting to note that the methods of centuries ago came again into being; grenades, and bombs again took their place in our scheme of warfare.

The first bombs made by the British were rough improvised affairs made at the front. The original home-made bombs consisted of jam tins filled with explosives, bits of iron and rock and contained a fuse. When this fuse was lit and the bomb hurled into the enemy trench, it exploded, doing a certain amount of damage. Other amateur bombs were made from glass jars similarly treated. These improvised affairs, however, were quickly discarded and many new types were developed of varying degrees of efficiency. One of the most elaborate varieties consisted of a stick with a complicated bomb attached to one end and some pieces of ribbon attached to the other. These were swung by hand and hurled into the enemy trench, the ribbons serving the purpose of guiding the bomb so that it would strike on the end containing the detonator. Many varieties were evolved but a small form, shaped like a lemon and capable of being thrown with great accuracy, soon superseded all others. After the pin had been removed from this Mills bomb a certain number of seconds elapsed before the bomb exploded. It proved to be the most efficient variety, was simple to manufacture and comparatively cheap. Another development was the rifle

grenade; it was really a bomb on the end of an iron rod which was inserted into the end of the rifle. When the rifle was fired off the bomb was projected into the air, and if the aim was accurate it fell into the enemy trench with results much similar to those of a hand-bomb. The trench mortar was developed very rapidly and all the old armouries of the world seemed to have been ransacked for ideas. The writer saw one trench mortar, made of wood, lying on the roadside by an advanced dressing station, which looked as if it might have taken part in the Siege of Troy.

This phase of warfare was rapidly developed by the Germans who devised trench mortars that could hurl huge projectiles of one hundred to two hundred pounds in weight with fair accuracy; on explosion these "minnenwerfer" would literally wipe out the section of trench struck.

Field artillery proved of little value in trench warfare because the flat trajectory of its shells made them almost harmless on explosion to men living underground in narrow ditches in the earth. Against trenches shrapnel proved almost useless and the Allies began firing high explosive shells almost exclusively to destroy trenches and battery positions.

The field howitzers played a far more important part in trench warfare. This type of gun fires its shell high into the air so that it descends almost perpendicularly. When such shells succeed in hitting trenches they do a tremendous amount of damage and if used in sufficient numbers to a given section of trench rapidly pulverize it.

The misery and discomfort of trench warfare cannot be described or even imagined. The misery of it, particularly in the autumn of 1914 and the winter of 1915, baffles the power of language. Men lived and slept in mud and water sometimes inches deep, sometimes above their knees, week in and week out. Icy water and mud and the inability of the men to exercise resulted in "trench feet," a disease, in its mild form, somewhat similar to a glorified "chilblain." When untreated it rapidly developed into gangrene which might result in the loss of a limb or prove fatal. One new British division, coming from a warm climate into the trenches in the winter, lost such a large percentage of its effectives in the course of a few days that a thorough investigation was made by G. H. Q. and the officer in charge severely censured. Preventive

measures consisting in the drainage of trench systems, the universal use of duck-boards under foot, the systematic removal of wet socks, chafing the feet with whale oil and putting on fresh socks resulted in the rapid disappearance of the disease. Eventually it was made an offense both for the soldier who developed trench feet and for the officer under whose charge he was.

The clothing and feeding of the British army was beyond criticism, and men returning from the trenches weary, dishevelled and indescribably dirty were soon restored to reasonable good humour and appearance. So efficient was the work of the commissariat and the medical corps that the British sick rate was not more than three per cent;—less than that of many garrison towns in time of peace and infinitely lower than that during any war of the past.

At this time the British army had lost more than the number they had first put in the field, and had been deprived of a large number of experienced officers.

THE PRINCESS PATS UNDER FIRE

The famous regiment known as the Princess Patricias Canadian Light Infantry, recruited by Gault of Montreal from men who had had actual experience in warfare, was, on August 12th, presented with colours by Princess Patricia, daughter of the Governor General, the Duke of Connaught. These colours, worked by the Princess herself, were the only colours allowed to be carried into the field by a Canadian regiment. In due course the battalion arrived on Salisbury Plain, and after the review of the Canadians by the King it moved over to Winchester on November 14, 1914. There it joined the Eightieth brigade of the Twenty-seventh British division. On December 20th, re-equipped with the British Lee-Enfield rifle, it moved to Southampton and after a short stay in Havre, entrained for St. Omer where it arrived on December 23d. The journey north was the usual one in crowded trucks for eight horses or forty men. After some trench digging for a few days the battalion was inspected by Sir John French and on January 4th the brigade moved up to Dickiebusch and that night went into the line.

There the usual trench routine was carried on until February 28th, when an attack was made upon a German Saphead with success. On March 14th the enemy in an attack secured the

front trench and the greater part of St. Eloi and the P. P. C. L. I.'s went forward from billets at Westoutre into action. While they were occupying the new support trenches Colonel Farquhar, their commanding officer, was killed and was succeeded by Lieutenant-Colonel Buller.

On April 9th the Princess Pats moved to Polygon Wood in the Ypres salient and remained there during the gas attack on the First Canadian division. On May 3d an enemy attack was repulsed and the battalion went into reserve. During the shelling, which was continuous and heavy, Colonel Buller was wounded and was succeeded by Major Gault.

On May 6th the P. P. C. L. I.'s went back into the front line and were there subjected to a terrific bombardment which continued all through the 7th. At dawn on May 8th the enemy attacked but was mowed down by rifle fire and withered away. The bombardment then became intensified, every wire was destroyed while whole sections of trench were blown in and the men behind them buried. By that time every signaller, orderly, pioneer and cook on the strength of the P. P. C. L. I.'s was in the support trenches.

Major Gault was wounded and the command devolved upon Lieutenant Niven. Two hours later the shelling again ceased to permit of an infantry attack which the Canadians again repulsed with great losses to the enemy.

The losses of the battalion were by this time very heavy, and enemy machine guns pushed forward swept the broken Canadian trenches. The brigade front was now battered beyond recognition; men were lying in shell holes or on the open ground and there were gaps of fifty yards without a survivor.

The shelling again began and every semblance of the fire trench was destroyed; every officer except Lieutenants Niven, Papineau, Vandenberg and Clark had been wounded or killed. Another enemy attack was then made but was only partially successful when nearly all the garrison had been killed. At 11.30 that night the remnant of the P. P. C. L. I.'s, 150 in all, were relieved and moved back into reserve trenches.

There they were employed carrying up supplies and digging until May 13th when, with the Fourth K. R. R. C., they formed a composite battalion and moved into the trenches at Hooge Château.

After a successful counter-attack by the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-eighth divisions on May 24th the regiment moved to a quiet sector on the Armentieres front. In September the P. P. C. L. I.'s, now re-enforced to full strength, moved to the Amiens front. On November 8th the regiment was ordered to return to the Canadian force where it was met by the band of the First Canadian division.

On January 1, 1916, the P. P. C. L. I.'s were absorbed into the Seventh brigade of the Third Canadian division under Major-General Mercer and thereafter its history is that of the Third Canadian division.

CANADIAN DIVISION ARRIVES IN FLANDERS

On February 4, 1915, the Canadian troops were reviewed by King George and on the following day left Salisbury Plains and entrained for Avonmouth en route to France. The division was under the command of Lieutenant-General Alderson. The First infantry brigade was commanded by Major-General M. S. Mercer, the Second infantry brigade by Major-General A. W. Currie and the Third infantry brigade by Major-General R. E. W. Turner, V.C., D.S.O. The artillery was under the command of Brigadier-General H. E. Burstall, the divisional engineers were commanded by Brigadier-General Armstrong, the divisional mounted troops by Lieutenant-Colonel F. C. Jameson and the divisional signallers by Major F. A. Lister.

The division sailed from Avonmouth and reached the port of St. Nazaire in France in the second week of February. The division left England with high hopes, for it was recognized that men of finer physique were not to be found anywhere in England and it was confidently believed that their courage would prove equal to their appearance. Nevertheless it was natural that some of the most highly trained officers of the Canadian division should have some anxiety as to the ability of comparatively raw troops and officers to stand up against the superb military organization which Germany had so scientifically constructed. It was natural to doubt that civilians with a few months' training, no matter how brave and intelligent, could be a match for the arrogant barbarians who had swept over the allied countries in Europe.

After a slow rail journey of some 350 miles from St. Nazaire

the Canadian division detrained a few miles west of Ploegsteert. The British army at that time held only the thirty miles of front lying between Ypres and Bethune.

Immediately after their arrival the Canadian troops began taking their turn in the trenches. As was the custom they were sandwiched in, in small sections, between seasoned regiments. Later they went in by companies, then by regiments, then by brigades, after which the division was given its own section of front. It was found that the men quickly assimilated the elements of trench routine by actually associating with men who had been engaged in that work for some time.

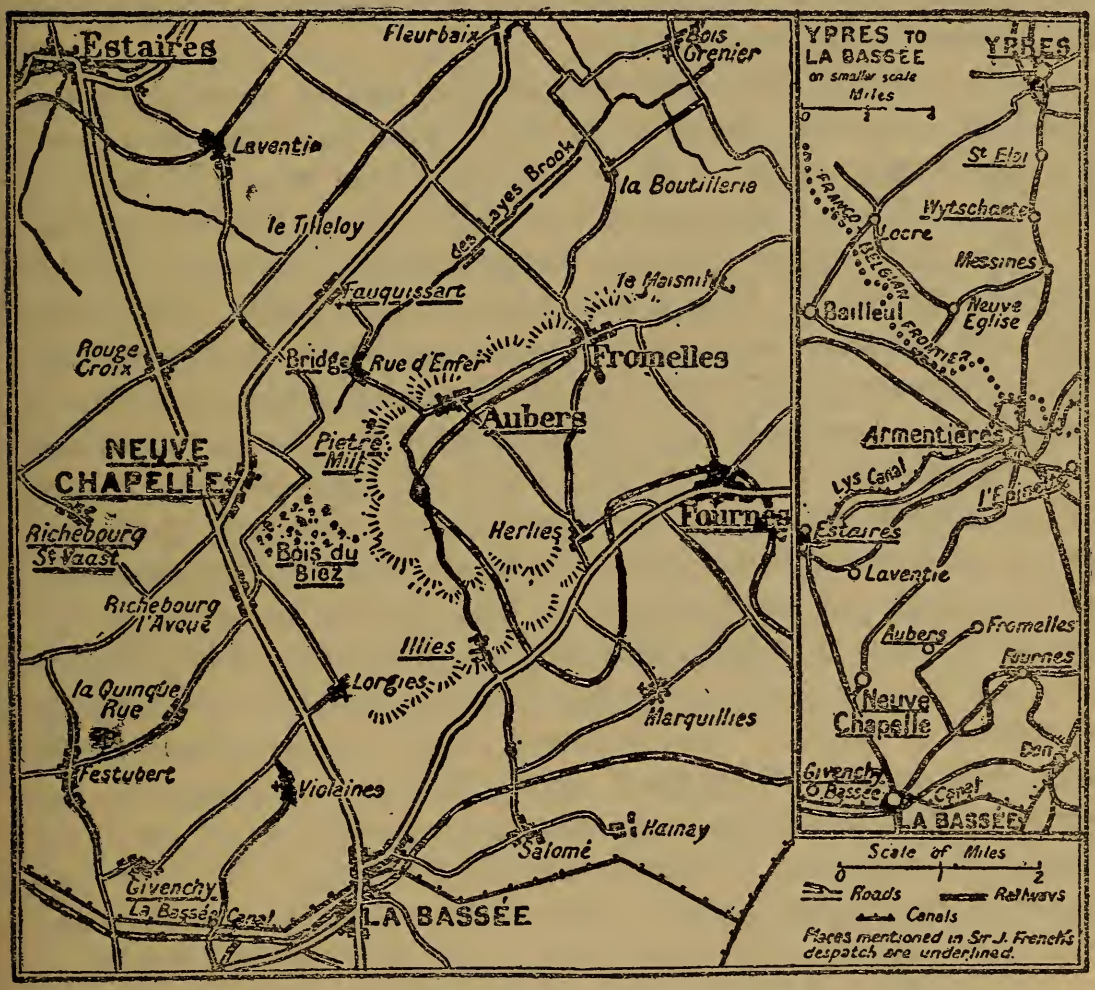
The Canadians were adaptable and soon fell into the routine of trench warfare. Shortly after their arrival the battle of Neuve Chapelle took place on their right, and although our infantry were not engaged in the fighting they were ready in case the attack succeeded. The Canadian artillery played its part in the great attack.

BATTLE OF NEUVE CHAPELLE

By March, 1915, the British forces had been considerably augmented. In November the Eighth division had arrived, and in January the Fifth corps had been constituted with two new divisions, the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-eighth, made up largely of men brought back from tropical stations. In February the Canadian division arrived and at the beginning of March several new territorial divisions. The total British troops in Frace and Belgium, including all arms, amounted to about half a million,—an army twelve times as large as that with which Wellington triumphed in the Peninsular War and fifty-five times as great as the force which charged with King Henry at Agincourt. It should be remembered that the number of infantrymen was only a fraction of this number.

It had been decided that an offensive should be undertaken on the British front and the section chosen was that opposite the village of Neuve Chapelle. The enemy in that region it was thought would probably be off its guard and the section was of real strategic importance. In front of it rises the Aubers ridge which, if won, would command the approaches to Lille, Roubaix, Tourcoing and the cities in the plain of the Scheldt. If successful the La Bassée-Lille line would be threatened and Lille itself rendered untenable.

The attack involved an artillery bombardment four times as great as anything we had yet undertaken. In order to destroy the enemy trenches and entanglements and to achieve success it was necessary that the staff work should be most efficient, for the infantry would have to advance under the curtain of artillery fire which would precede them. If the co-ordination of different units was ineffective the attack was likely to fail.



Where Britons Made History in the Early Days of the War

On the 8th and 9th of March a great quantity of artillery of all descriptions was gathered together, including one of our new fifteen-inch howitzers. At 7.30 a terrific bombardment started, wire entanglements were blown up, trenches smashed and most of the German front disintegrated by the preparation which lasted for thirty-five minutes. A little after eight the infantry advanced as the gunners lengthened their range and shortly after 8.30 the

village of Neuve Chapelle was in our hands. Everything had gone well up till noon when trouble began. Telephonic communications had been all cut, and it was difficult to get orders back. There were unaccountable delays in bringing up the necessary reserve brigades and the opportunity for pushing on and seizing the ridge rapidly disappeared.

The Germans, well protected by machine-gun fire, held up our advance and as night closed in it was necessary to dig in and strengthen the line we had won.

The next day the Germans had rallied and our asset of surprise had been lost while our great artillery effort had exhausted itself. By the evening of the 12th it was clear that we could not win the ridge, while the Germans were unable to retake Neuve Chapelle.

The most severe German counter-attack was not at Neuve Chapelle but at St. Eloi, fifteen miles further north. On March 14th, the Germans concentrated largely against the section held by the Twenty-seventh division near the Ypres-Armentieres road. As a result of the bombardment and fierce infantry attacks the British were forced out of their trenches and fell back but at 2 A. M. on the 15th March counter-attacked and recovered all of the lost ground of material importance. In this action the Princess Patricia's regiment was engaged for the first time in an action of first rate importance and their deeds were the pride of the whole empire.

This famous regiment, as has been mentioned, was originally composed of soldiers who had seen active service. Incidentally they were nearly all married men. The line in France in the winter of 1914 was exceedingly thin and trained reserves were very limited in numbers. Consequently the P. P. C. L. I.'s were despatched to France months before the Canadian division and took their place in relieving strain on the hard pressed British.

The battle of Neuve Chapelle in which we advanced on a front of three miles to a depth of a mile straightened out our line at that point. The ridges were not won but the enemy had a bad fit of nerves and suffered from something resembling a panic.

The German casualties were about 20,000 while we took 2,000 prisoners. The offensive put new heart into our men and made them feel that the new British troops had taken on the traditions and fighting qualities of the old. British casualties were 13,000 of which 2,500 were killed.

CHAPTER XI

The War at Sea

When Admiral Von Spee, with the German Pacific squadron, left Kiau-chau early in August, his squadron consisted of seven vessels, one of which, the *Emden*, was detached for commerce raiding in the Indian Ocean, while the speedy light cruiser *Karlsruhe* became a privateer in the South Atlantic. The vessels remaining with him consisted of the two armoured cruisers the *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst* and the three light cruisers, the *Dresden*, *Leipzig* and *Nurnberg*. This speedy well-armed squadron set out to prey upon our commerce routes and found coaling and provisioning bases in Ecuador, Colombia and the Gallapagos Islands in South America. Neutrals were very obliging at that time, and in some cases even permitted the German admiral to use their wireless stations.

Early in August, a small British squadron under Rear-Admiral Craddock had set sail to protect the southern trade routes. In this squadron was the battleship *Canopus*, two armoured cruisers, the *Good Hope* and *Monmouth*, the light cruiser *Glasgow*, and an armed liner *Attrento*. None of the vessels was strong either in speed or armament.

In the third week of October Craddock's squadron steamed up the coast of Chili toward Von Spee without the *Canopus* which had dropped behind for repairs. The re-enforcements expected daily from Great Britain had not arrived and the British admiral knew that in speed and range of guns his squadron was greatly inferior in fighting strength to the squadron of the enemy.

On the 1st of November, about four o'clock in the afternoon, the German fleet was sighted. About seven o'clock in the evening the squadrons had approached within seven miles of each other, the afterglow of the sunset lighting up the British ships standing out to sea while the Germans were masked in the inshore twilight. The enemy got the range and at seven-fifty the *Good Hope* was set on fire and destroyed. The *Monmouth* was also set on fire and steamed out to the open sea in distress. The *Glasgow*, though

under fire at a range of two and a half miles, and struck by five shells on the waterline, escaped. Later on she fell in with the *Canopus*, steaming from the direction of Cape Horn, and the two proceeded towards the Straits of Magellan.

The news of this British disaster startled the British Admiralty, and almost at once Rear-Admiral Sturdee disappeared unheralded with a squadron to the South Atlantic. With him were the *Invincible* and *Inflexible*, the two first battle cruisers built by Britain. They had a possible speed of twenty-eight knots an hour and were armed with eight twelve-inch guns. He had also three armoured cruisers, the *Carnarvon*, the *Kent* and the *Cornwall*, and at sea picked up the *Bristol* and the *Glasgow*. The squadron was also accompanied by the armoured liner *Macedonia*.

Von Spee was trapped by a clever scheme known as the "double bluff." A wireless message was sent to the British battleship *Canopus* bidding her proceed to the Falklands. This message was intercepted by the Germans, who, as was intended, regarded it as a bluff, designed to mislead them. They believed that the *Canopus* was already at the Falkland Islands and would be an easy prey. Admiral Von Spee, therefore, proceeded to the Islands to make a prize of the *Canopus*. Von Spee knew nothing about the presence of Sturdee's expedition, a really remarkable tribute to the intelligence department of the Admiralty.

On the 7th December the British squadron arrived at Port Stanley in the Falkland Islands, and on the 8th, Admiral Von Spee arrived from the direction of Cape Horn. The Germans advanced in line to attack, and at nine-thirty, coming abreast of the harbour, saw for the first time the full strength of the British squadron. Von Spee at once put to sea with Sturdee's squadron steaming in pursuit. At five minutes to one, fire was opened upon the *Leipzig*, and Von Spee, seeing that flight was impossible, despatched his three light cruisers to the south. These were followed by the *Kent*, *Glasgow* and *Cornwall*, while the two British battle cruisers *Invincible* and *Inflexible* and the *Carnarvon* engaged the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau*. At four o'clock the *Scharnhorst*, pounded to pieces, turned bottom up and at six o'clock the *Gneisenau* also listed and went under.

The cruisers engaging the enemy fought desperately, and at seven-thirty the *Nurnberg* was set on fire by the *Kent* and went

down while the *Leipzig* heeled over and sank at nine p. m. Only the *Dresden*, battered and fleeing far out to sea, remained of the German squadron.

The fight resulted in the annihilation of the one squadron left to Germany outside of the North Sea and removed a formidable menace to our trade routes. On all seas there were then left above water the *Dresden*, *Karlsruhe*, the *Bremen*, and the armoured merchantmen *Kronprinz Wilhelm* and the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* of all the armed vessels belonging to Germany.

The cruiser *Dresden* was caught off Juan Fernandez on March 14, 1915, by the *Kent* and *Glasgow*, and sunk in five minutes, while it is believed that the *Karlsruhe* was wrecked in the West Indies during the autumn of 1914.

In this fight the German sailors fought well and they went down with colours flying and with the men lined up on deck. Apparently there had never been a thought of surrender. There can be no higher praise than this that the German sailors died as Craddock's men had died.

BOMBARDMENT OF DEFENCELESS ENGLISH TOWNS

Early in the war the English people became obsessed with the idea that the enemy intended to invade England. As long as the Grand Fleet held the sea, invasion on a great scale was admittedly difficult or even impossible, though under cover of fog the possibility might become a reality. With this in view the yeomanry and territorials entrenched themselves in the eastern counties while there developed much activity in the formation of national guards.

On November 2d eight German warships left their harbour and, cleared for action, steamed towards England. At eight o'clock they were opposite Yarmouth and at a distance of ten miles bombarded the wireless station and naval air station. Their shells fell harmlessly on the beach and after dropping a number of floating mines they returned home. It was merely a reconnaisance and intended to render the British people uneasy. The affair was not taken seriously in England.

On December 15th, a day of thick mist on the Channel, a German squadron appeared off Scarboro, an open seaside resort without military defences. Approaching to within five hundred

yards of the shore they systematically bombarded every large object in sight, including the gas works, water works, Grand Hotel, churches, public buildings, and hospitals. Five hundred shells were fired into the town during a period of forty minutes, after which the vessels moved northward, dropping mines as they steamed away. Eighteen people, mostly women and children, were killed and about seventy wounded.

About nine o'clock Whitby was similarly bombarded, several thousand shells falling on and around the town without causing serious damage, only three being killed and two wounded.

Another division visited Hartlepool which had a small fort with a battery of small antiquated guns. Off the shore a British gunboat, carrying 4-inch guns, and two destroyers lay when the four large German cruisers appeared suddenly out of the mist and opened fire upon them. The small British craft tried to close and torpedo the invaders but were driven off with a loss of half a dozen killed and twenty-five wounded. A bombardment of the fort with 12-inch shells was then instituted and in the course of half an hour about 1,500 shells seemed to have been fired. The battery stuck to its guns and though tremendously outclassed kept on firing with, of course, little success. Churches, hospitals, schools, gas works and houses were destroyed. One hundred and nineteen people were killed and 300 wounded, while three steamers that night struck mines dropped by the invaders and sank.

The attack came like a bolt from the blue and the citizens were suddenly plunged from profound peace into the midst of a nerve-racking war. The heroism shown by the civilians, and particularly among the telephone girls and children, was noteworthy.

The news of the attempt had reached the British Grand Fleet and two battle cruiser squadrons moved out to intercept the raiders. The mist thickened till a series of fog belts stretched one hundred miles out from the British shore. They probably saved the German squadron from absolute destruction.

The second battle cruiser squadron came within view of the enemy eight miles away and the trap was about to close when the fog thickened, the speed had to be reduced, and the German fleet made its escape.

The German aim was to create a panic in civilian England which would prevent the despatch of the new armies to the con-

tinent, and compel the Admiralty to move the base of the Grand Fleet nearer to the east coast. Both objects failed and no clamour was raised for the use of the new armies as a garrison for the British seaboard.

Neutral nations, particularly America, were seriously scandalized at the bombardment of defenceless towns, and Germany, which had at first made much of this exploit, undertook to make foolish explanations.

The slaughter of civilians for the purpose of producing an impression was repellant to men trained in the etiquette of a great service like the British navy. The German navy, which had hitherto been admired, had begun to show its parvenu origin and its lack of centuries of tradition.

BATTLE OF DOGGER BANK

On January 24th another German battle cruiser squadron left Wilhelmshaven presumably to repeat the exploits of its predecessors. The complete purpose of the German admiral, however, was not known. On the same morning the British battle cruiser squadron under Sir David Beatty also put to sea. About seven o'clock the Germans were sighted off the Dogger Bank. The enemy fled, apparently with the purpose of luring our vessels into the dangerous mined Helgoland area. At nine o'clock our guns opened fire on the *Blucher* and the British gunnery thereafter made excellent practice, shell after shell at a range of ten miles striking pinpoints that were moving at the rate of thirty miles an hour. At eleven o'clock the *Seydlitz* and *Derflinger* were on fire and the *Blucher* fell behind and sank.

The fortune of the battle which had been going favourably for the British altered about eleven o'clock when Admiral Beatty's flagship, the *Lion*, was struck by a shell, which so reduced her speed that the British admiral transferred his flag to a destroyer. About twelve-thirty he was able to overhaul the *Princess Royal*, to which he retransferred his flag, but found that his squadron had broken off the fight and was retiring. The reason assigned for this was that the British fleet was approaching a mine field newly laid by the Germans, and consequently it was deemed advisable to cease the attack before the fleet had become entangled therein.

The result was gravely annoying to Germany and the German

admiral was shortly afterwards removed from the command of the High Sea Fleet.

The battle of Dogger Bank confirmed the British in their belief in the power of great guns, the excellence of British gunnery and the immense advantage of speed.

SUBMARINE BLOCKADE OF BRITAIN

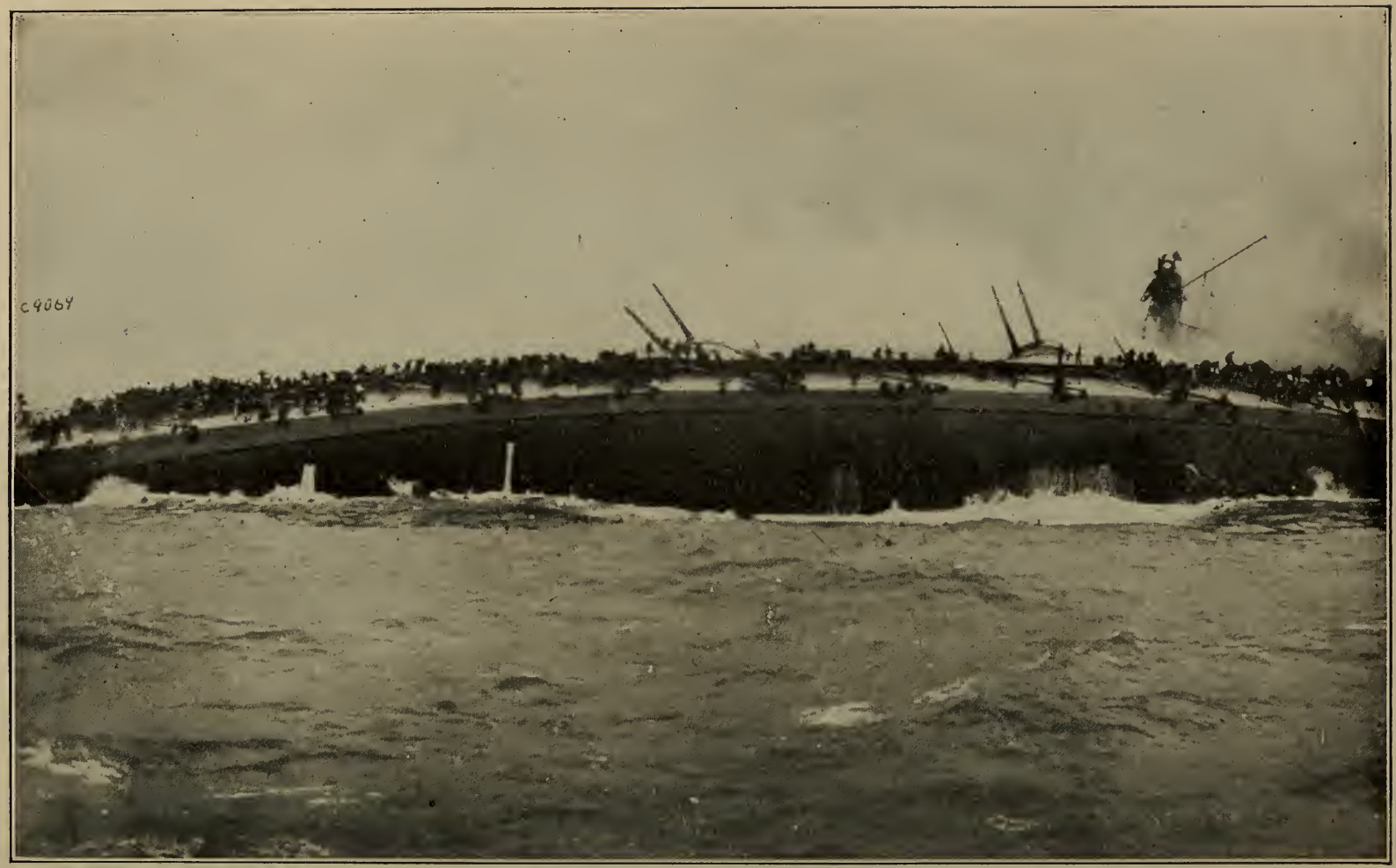
Toward the end of January the German Government announced their intention of seizing all stocks of corn and flour; this meant that grain had become a munition of war. Merchandise, which was not contraband of war, had hitherto been allowed to pass into Germany in neutral vessels. Accordingly the British Government now found it necessary to revise its practice, and an American steamer, laden with foodstuffs for Germany, was stopped and the case referred to the prize courts. Germany, much agitated by the unforeseen results of the declaration, tried to modify it by stating that imports of food would not be used for military purposes. Such a declaration could not be accepted by Britain because it was impossible in practice. Thereupon Germany, in a fit of anger, boldy declared war against all British merchandise, a war which would follow none of the old procedures, for it would be conducted by submarines which had no facilities for rescuing crews or passengers. Germany announced that from February 18th onward the waters round the British Isles would be considered a war zone and that any enemy merchant vessel found there would be destroyed without warning.

The blockade of Britain was not a blockade in a technical sense because Germany merely specified certain areas in which she proposed to commit acts forbidden by every code of naval warfare.

The German announcement gave serious concern to neutral nations, particularly America. On March 1st the British announced that they considered themselves free to take into port all ships carrying goods of presumed enemy origin, ownership or destination. No neutral vessel sailing from a German port after that date would be allowed to proceed, and no vessel after that date could enter any German port. Such an announcement implied a strict blockade of Germany and was designed as a legitimate retaliation against a foe which had broken every international rule and every moral obligation.

A NARROW ESCAPE

A torpedo from a German U-boat passes just beyond the stern of a British war vessel.



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THE SINKING OF THE GERMAN CRUISER "BLUECHER"

This dramatic photograph from the great North Sea Battle in 1915 shows the stricken ship just as she turned turtle and was about to sink. Officers and men can be seen swarming like ants on the upper side of the hull. Others, who either fell or preferred to take their chance in the sea, are shown swimming away from the wreck.

German submarines immediately began sinking merchantmen in considerable numbers, the losses working out at about three per thousand of all sailings. The German blockade scarcely hindered the sailing of a single British ship; it did not even raise the price of necessaries, but it effectively ruined what was left of German reputation in the eyes of the civilized world. The German navy had no traditions and the humanity of submarine commanders depended on their personality. Some were as decent as their orders would permit of, while others jeered at the drowning sailors and passengers and even fired upon them when escaping in the life-boats. Of all the errors committed by Germany this was the greatest, for by their cold-blooded and heartless actions they absolutely alienated the respect of the navy and merchant marine. In its place they inspired a remorseless anger which added a new zest to the otherwise indifferent sport of hunting down and destroying those sea pirates. And when the war ended Germany found their most powerful and implacable foes in the organized sailors' union which refused to allow German goods to be carried in British ships for the next ten years.

CHAPTER XII

The First Year of War

At the end of the first year of war the rich industrial region of Northern France with her great coal fields and iron mines, the greater part of Belgium and all Western Poland were under the German heel. The enemy was within only thirty miles of Paris and held all the high ground from La Bassée to Ypres. Germany had defeated the Allies in a series of great battles in France and Belgium. Her early defeats in Eastern Prussia had been wiped out by the complete overthrow of the Russian army at Tannenberg. Galicia, which in the early months had been overrun by the Russians, had been won back with all its oil fields and granaries. Warsaw seemed to be doomed and the Russian armies were apparently broken for months to come. The Allies had few spectacular victories to their credit though Turkey had been beaten in Mesopotamia and the Caucasus. In France the allied line had been securely held. Their attempt to force the Dardanelles had failed, the military effort of Italy had had little effect so far and there had been but little inducement for Greece, Rumania and Bulgaria to throw in their lot with the Allies.

On the other hand German possessions outside of Europe had melted away. Tsing-Tau, in China, upon which millions had been spent, had gone; Togoland, in Africa, had become a British colony, and the rest of Germany's African colonies had been won or were on the point of falling.

On the whole the honours of the first year appeared to lie with Germany, judging by facts alone. In looking beyond these bare facts, however, the outlook appeared in a different light.

Germany's plan of campaign depended on a speedy decision. She was to crush France, compel Russia to sue for peace and then deal with the rest of the world in her own good time. Her first plan had failed when her army was beaten on the Marne, her second plan had been then to seize the Channel ports, divide the Franco-British army and bring about peace before the winter. That plan

failed when her army with odds of at least five to one failed to break our line and gain the Channel. Germany then adopted a third plan. She accepted the war of attrition for the moment and began piling up tremendous reserves of guns and munitions, which would enable her to hold her front with material instead of men-power, and would enable her to take the offensive with fewer men than her enemies, thus nullifying the increase in numbers which the allied armies were bound to shortly possess.

A battery of heavy guns operated by women miles off can destroy hundreds of expert infantrymen, who have no chance of attacking the engine of destruction. By accepting this third plan Germany condemned herself to a slow war, during which the Allies would add millions of men to their armies, though for a long time it would be impossible for them to manufacture the necessary war supplies at the same rate as Germany. With the war carried on for two or three years under these conditions Germany counted on the allied nations becoming restive and serious differences between the allied governments arising. She realized perfectly well the potentialities of Great Britain in men and material, but she knew that the British staff had been trained to handle small numbers of men only and would be unlikely to succeed when they would have to handle millions. Under these circumstances she hoped for a draw which would enable her, after some years of recuperation, to again emerge to the attack.

It must be remembered that Germany for twenty years at least had been building up this war machine of such great magnitude and power. All the energies of an autocratic government and a docile people had conspired to perfect methods in machinery that would prove irresistible.

After the war had begun the eyes of Germany's enemies had been opened, for the writings, speeches and, above all, their deeds were damning evidence as to the preparations and purposes of Germany in the past.

No price seemed too great for mankind to pay to destroy this arrogant people obsessed with beliefs that were hateful to the rest of mankind.

She had convinced the Allies that peace, except through battles won on the field, would be absolutely intolerable.

In Great Britain the truth about the German machine had

slowly come home to the people. There was much talk about organization but organization simply meant to the average Briton the copying of German methods. The old constitutional catch-words were bandied about in the press, but the people, quicker to learn than the professional politicians, knew that there was a great lack of national leadership. It was an excellent example of the fact that a democracy is rarely fitted for war and in the hour of need is almost compelled to seek a dictator or its equivalent in order to avoid disaster.

The British people as a whole were remarkably ignorant of military questions. Nevertheless, though the censor eliminated much that was of absorbing interest, every man realized great facts, such as when Paris was nearly reached, Warsaw was in peril, when the Germans were succeeding and when the Allies were failing. But, not knowing that gigantic losses may have but little influence on the ultimate result, the average Britisher in the long months of mischance and defeat saw the campaign in colours much darker than the truth.

The Allies as a whole had less inherent capacity for organization than the Germans and failed to pool any of their assets scientifically. They even bargained against one another in neutral countries in purchasing munitions and supplies instead of co-operating in a big way. In one essential, however, the Allies were absolutely united, they had agreed to make peace as one power and they were resolved to make no peace which should be indecisive.

On the map the situation looked bad for the allied powers, yet day by day the numbers of the enemy steadily grew less while the allied war machine was being builded. The element of time was on the allied side, their armies had not been destroyed, their losses had been made good and it was perfectly clear, to the expert at least, that gains of allied territory meant nothing as long as the allied armies were undefeated.

The Allies worked harmoniously in spite of Teutonic endeavours to set labour against capital, to set the allied countries against each other by insisting upon the unfairness of the part being played by the others. The seeds of strife fell upon unreceptive ground, for Germany had inspired a universal and intense antagonism. Furthermore, there was a sincere admiration felt by each allied army for the performance of the others. The Allies also were more

disposed to criticise their own unpreparedness instead of their neighbours, and each was busy reconstructing and making the most of its own possibilities.

Italy had joined the Allies in May, 1915, and Venezelos had tried, though without success, to bring in Greece against the Teutonic League.

The situation in the Balkans had not yet resolved itself. The United States, though American steamers had been sunk by submarines and American lives lost, had kept her position of aloofness and merely protested by notes to which Germany replied disdainfully.

THE FALL OF PRZEMYSL

In April, 1915, the Allies looked to Russia with supreme confidence. The deficiency of men on the western front we hoped would be counterbalanced by an abundance of men which it was believed Russia must by then possess. It was generally held that Russia would assume the offensive either by advancing on Cracow or making a descent upon the Hungarian plains. The Allies counted upon Russia's offensive as the great offensive of the summer. It was, therefore, a tremendous disappointment when the Germans assumed the offensive and drove the Russians back into their own country. It was a bitter blow to the Allies for it involved the postponement of their main attack and the lengthening of the war. For Russia it was a season of great peril and much suffering and it required the whole fortitude of the nation to carry on with resolution and extricate their southern armies from destruction.

Early in the spring the Russian campaign appeared to be going on most favorably to the Allies. Przemysl fell to the Russians on March 22d, and on April 17th Brussilov was within two or three days' march of the Hungarian plains.

In five weeks of fighting in the Carpathians the Russian general Ivanov had captured 30 guns, 200 machine guns and 70,000 prisoners. On April 25th, during the spring thaw, the Austrians developed another counter-attack against the Russians in the mountain valleys. It was a feint to mislead Russia and lead her to believe that they were making an attempt to relieve the pressure on the Carpathian line which might at any moment collapse and allow the invasion of Hungary.

The Germans had kept their secret well. Three-fourths of their winter's accumulation of shells were brought to Cracow and carried out by night to the front lines. Guns of every calibre were transported from all over Germany and concentrated on the German front. In one section of twenty miles over 1,000 cannon were placed in position. Tremendous quantities of engineering supplies, numerous hospitals and food depots were established, and, when all was ready, there was a sudden inflow of troops from the whole of the area occupied by the Central Powers. There never had been such a swift concentration of men and guns in the history of the world and Russia was caught napping. The Grand Duke Nicholas, like every other allied commander, was in absolute ignorance of the gigantic artillery strength which Germany had developed during the winter months.

During April the commands and forces of the Teutonic League had been completely readjusted. The whole of the real attacking force had been placed under Von Mackensen, who had been a lieutenant of Von Hindenburg. His army was the strongest which Germany had ever gathered under a single general. He probably possessed eight of the new divisions of assault which had been created by picking out the finest men in the first line corps.

The total enemy force was estimated to be about 2,000,000 men, and, of these, at least ten corps were under Mackensen, who possessed probably 2,000 guns.

The aim of the Germans was quite clear. The expenditure of a certain quantity of shells would make any position untenable, and consequently, it could be calculated with mathematical accuracy that the Russian armies could be blown out of any position or series of positions which they would attempt to occupy. In consequence Przemysl and Lemberg would be recaptured, the valuable oil fields of Galicia would be retaken and the Hungarian cornfields protected. Rumania would be kept out of the struggle and the ultimate result, if Mackensen proved successful in driving Ivanov out of Galicia, would be the fall of Warsaw and the recovery of the Polish triangle. The immediate hope of the German high command was to put the Russians temporarily out of action. The assault had to be completely successful in order to achieve the object desired, for, if the Russians were driven over the border and split up, renewed action on their part would be impossible

for months, and heavy re-enforcements could be transferred from the Russian to the western front.

On the 28th of April Von Mackensen's advance began and the fighting which followed was of the most violent, intricate and determined description. Russia fell back. Being weaker than the enemy it was her business to exhaust the great machine by stretching it out to the greatest possible limit even though hundreds of miles of territory had to be given up in the process. Consequently the Russians retreated, keeping in constant touch with the enemy, fighting rearguard actions, and exhausting the great German reserves of shells and material. The Grand Duke contemplated giving up Przemysl, which had been captured only ten weeks before as well as Lemberg, the first great fruits of Russian victory, and the city of Warsaw, which Germany had already tried in vain to capture on three occasions.

Many engagements occurred during this retreat, which, in size and in the number of casualties sustained were equivalent to large battles.

On May 15th, for example, Ivanov, in a counter-attack, fell upon the Austrians and beat them, the enemy sustaining 30,000 casualties. In another counter-attack on the 9th of May the Russians on a front of one hundred miles cleared the Germans from the Dniester line and drove the enemy back in some places as much as thirty miles. Such effective blows would have compelled a halt in the enemy advance if the Russians had not been too weak in men and material.

The battle of San began on May 15th. By the end of May the Austro-German lines were pressing in on three sides of the defences of Przemysl and on June 2d Von Mackensen entered the city. Though made much of in the press and magnified both by Russia and Germany at the time of its capture, it was but an incident of comparatively small value from a military standpoint.

It was interesting to note that during the German advance the wings of Von Mackensen's army were pushed out beyond the centre and against these the Russians fought numerous actions with signal success; but as soon as the heavy German guns arrived the Russian retreat would again be forced. This necessitated the constant shifting of the main enemy centre of operations, and,

while the great machine was getting in order for another movement it would be the function of another Russian army to take the next step in the offensive.

The Russians took their toll of casualties whenever possible. On June 8th part of the great German army got too far away from its railways, guns and munitions, and the mobile Russians, attacking it in a three days' battle drove it across the Dniester with a loss of 15,000 prisoners.

In spite of this continuous fighting and the losses incurred, the German army steadily advanced and on June 22d Lemberg was taken without opposition. The capital of Galicia, after nine months, was once more in Austrian hands. Lemberg was of genuine value for it was the centre of a network of railways, and was a really strong fortress against invasion from the east.

The fall of Lemberg marked the second great stage of the Austro-German offensive. During the seven weeks' campaign the invaders had probably lost in killed, wounded and prisoners nearly half a million men, and a great deal of their store of shells had been used up.

Russia had learned that whenever her troops got in close touch with the enemy she could beat him, but as long as it was a battle of long-range guns she was helpless. The result was that Russia, appreciating her deficiencies, made desperate efforts to organize her industries for the purpose of manufacturing shells, guns and other war material. For most of her munitions she had depended on foreign imports from her Allies and America. At that very moment Great Britain and France, realizing Russia's need, were struggling to open the passage through the Dardanelles, an opening that would permit of the entrance of guns, shells, equipment and other necessities into Russia, and permit Russian wheat, food and other needed raw materials to be brought out.

THE DARDANELLES

The Turks were a martial people and from the outset the Sultans of Constantinople realized that the defence of their capital and the existence of their empire depended on their security against naval attacks. It was of importance to bar the western entrance of the Sea of Marmora and the Turks had no sooner occupied Gallipoli than they began to fortify the Dardanelles.

The Dardanelles channel between the Sea of Marmora and the Mediterranean separates Turkey in Europe from Asia Minor, and was designed by nature as a magnificent protection to the capital of the Bosporus against any naval incursion from the south.

The strategic value of forcing the Dardanelles in a war with Turkey was clear beyond all doubt. The method adopted was foredoomed to failure.

The history of Britain is sown with the failures of divergent operations. A divergent operation is quite different from a subsidiary operation which may be an attempt to destroy some enemy line of communications, make him yield some property of strategic value or induce a neutral nation to make up its mind. A subsidiary operation strictly subserves the main object of the war. A divergent operation, on the contrary, has no relation to the main effort except that it is directed against the same enemy.

Success in a divergent operation is quite consistent with utter failure in the chief campaign, and usually involves some wasting of the forces available in the main theatre of operations, as well as the dissipation of energy and brain power.

A legitimate subsidiary operation may take place in a locality far removed from the main theatre, such as when Wellington wore down the strength of the French in Spain while the big stake was in Central Europe. If the force employed on such an operation is not strong enough to effect the object it is much better left at home. A subsidiary operation must not weaken the main campaign.

The fall of Constantinople would simplify the Russian problem and release troops for Poland and Galicia; in fact, a mere threat to the capital might lead to a revolution in Turkey. The opening of the passage between the Black Sea and the Ægean would give Russia a channel for exporting her accumulated wheat and alter the rate of exchange so strongly against her. It would also provide a passage for the entrance of war munitions and raw materials. It would also have a most important effect upon hesitating neutrals. Italy was still undecided and the downfall of Turkey would impel her to action, while Greece, Rumania and Bulgaria would be greatly influenced and probably come in with the Allies.

Mr. Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, in discussing the strategic purpose of the Dardanelles expedition said:

> You must not forget the prize for which you are contending, the army of Sir Ian Hamilton and the fleet of Admiral De Robeck are separated only by a few miles from a victory such as this war has not yet seen . . . I am speaking of victory in the sense of a brilliant and formidable fact shaping the destinies of nations and shortening the duration of the war. Beyond those few miles of ridge and scrub on which our soldiers are now battling lies the downfall of a hostile empire . . . the fall of a world-famous capital and probably the accession of powerful Allies . . . there never was a great subsidiary operation of war in which a more complete harmony of strategic, political and economic advantages had combined, or which stood in truer relation to the main decision which is in the central theatre. From the narrows of the Dardanelles and across the ridges of the Gallipoli peninsula lie some of the shortest paths to a triumphant peace.

On November 3, 1914, the combined French and British squadrons bombarded the entrance forts of the Dardanelles at long range. On December 13th a submarine entered the straits and torpedoed a Turkish warship guarding the mine fields, but nothing in earnest was done until the 19th of February, 1915. From the 19th of February to the 18th of March the attacks of the warships represented an attempt to destroy the defences of the Dardanelles and force a passage into the Sea of Marmora by naval power alone. Such an attempt was opposed by a very high naval authority while certain other naval authorities approved of it.

The long-range guns and high explosives of warships have a low trajectory which makes it exceedingly difficult to hit an object like a fort more or less hidden on the tops of hills and defended, as they were, by earthworks and concrete.

The notion was that the outer forts to the entrance of the straits could be silenced by the fire of ships from the open sea, while the attack on the inner forts would be carried on by fire from ships in the Gulf of Saros, firing their shells over the hills of the Gallipoli peninsula, the fire being directed by aeroplanes.

The northern shore of the straits is formed by the Peninsula of Gallipoli, a tongue of land some fifty miles long and varying in width from two to twelve miles. The country is a mass of rocky ridges rising to a height of over seven hundred feet from the sea;

the hills are steep, and there is little cultivation of the soil. There are few villages, and no properly engineered roads, and all the land is covered by dense scrub three to six feet high. The southern shore is also hilly and on both sides the high ground overhangs the sea passage.

The narrows are fourteen miles from the mouth and at this point the straits close in to a width of about three-quarters of a mile. At the narrows, guns placed in position on the water's edge can cross-fire against ships ascending the straits; such ships can also be brought under fire from guns on the top of the narrows. Both sides are lined with batteries and once the entrance is passed all fighting has to be at close range. The channel was obstructed by fixed and floating mines which were allowed to float down with the current and torpedo tubes were mounted in concealed positions on the shores. To force a channel thus defended was practically impossible and could only be carried out by the co-operation of an adequate land army.

The outer forts were silenced after a number of days by the converging fire of the warships standing out to sea, and on February 26th a number of North Sea trawlers set to work to sweep for mines in the entrance.

Then three warships steamed in for a distance of four miles and attacked one of the forts at some distance below the narrows. Nothing serious was attempted on the narrows forts until March 6th, when six warships entered the straits and attacked the forts on both sides, just below the narrows, while the main attack was being delivered by the *Queen Elizabeth* and *Agamemnon* lying in the Gulf of Saros on the other side of the Gallipoli Peninsula. On March 7th the attack was renewed both from within the narrows and from the outer sea, but the great effort was made on the 18th of March when practically all of the combined fleet attacked the various forts which had not been silenced. On this occasion the *Bouvet*, *Irresistible*, and the *Ocean* were struck by drifting mines and sunk, while the *Gaulois* and *Inflexible* were also struck and seriously injured. The Allies lost three battleships and more than 2,000 men, while the forts still remained in action. Thereafter the naval attack was not pushed, because the attempt had proved to the most optimistic that ships alone could never force such a passage, and plans were made for a land attack, to be

gallantly attempted later by the British and French forces including the Australian and New Zealand army corps.

MILITARY METHODS

Strategically, all the German preconceptions about enveloping movements died a sudden death with the opening of trench warfare. In general, nothing revolutionary, or at variance with the accepted practices of war, had occurred. The doctrine as to the crushing effect of artillery against fort and field positions had proved itself. The German practice of massed infantry attacks had little to recommend it and succeeded only when artillery preparation had dissipated all opposition. It was a device necessary where armies had to absorb into their ranks raw and inferior fighting material.

The German success with artillery was not their tactical handling of it but their ample supply. The German staff saw exactly what part modern science must play in warfare, and they kept their eyes resolutely fixed upon it; and, as Germany was organized industrially, she exerted her full national strength in maintaining her supremacy. Germany introduced poison gas and liquid fire which proved to be successful for the moment but failed eventually. These inventions seemed the devices of a ferocious and merciless people and for that reason inspired tremendous feeling against the German people. They proved to be boomerangs which later on returned to strike down those who originated them.

The Allies on the whole were satisfied that their theories of war had been justified. Their belief in a high standard of rifle fire and attack in open order had proved to be successful where enemy guns had permitted of fighting at close quarters. Man for man it had been demonstrated beyond all question that the average Russian, Belgian, Frenchman and Briton was superior to the German soldier. It was not altogether a question of courage but rather one of dash, fortitude, stamina and initiative which gave the Allies that temperamental superiority. This was shown most clearly in aerial work and bayonet work where the individual qualities of the Allies were most conspicuous.

The question of numbers was most vital and it was clear that if Germany could not win in the first year of war she was doomed

to defeat. As the Allies increased she would decrease, and it became apparent that she could not possibly hold her position indefinitely in spite of her temporary superiority in guns and shells.

The naval position was wholly in favour of the Allies. German merchantmen and German ships of war had disappeared from the seas. The German success at the battle of Coronel had been quickly redeemed by the destruction of the German fleet at the Falkland Islands. The battle of the Bight of Helgoland had showed that the British navy could still carry on war inside German territorial waters. The submarine campaign had affected little of military purpose except the withdrawal of the larger British battleships from the Dardanelles. The British Grand Fleet, without any great battleships firing a shot, had carried out its task; its existence gave security to her commerce and with the aid of the cruiser squadrons kept the enemy inactive.

Month after month these great ships swept the seas, steaming at night without lights, in the storms and the fogs and the blackness of the North Sea winter, perpetually menaced by mines and submarines. There was no glory and nothing to relieve the monotony of their toil; it was something worse than the monotony of peace.

In England no outstanding statesman had appeared. In Greece, Venizelos, a statesman of the first order, was busily engaged reconstructing a new Greece; in France, Delcasse, the wisest Foreign Minister in Europe, was an outstanding figure, but practically no others of the first magnitude had as yet appeared among the Allies. The German leaders, Von Bethman-Hollweg and Von Jagow, were quite ordinary people.

On the military side a few great generals among the Central Powers had appeared. Von Hindenburg had become a popular idol but his sledge-hammer blows were only those carried out by the machine of which he was a part. Among the Allies the Grand Duke Nicholas and General Joffre probably overtopped all others. They possessed the complete confidence of their nations, and were, in a sense, real dictators, having genius for disregarding side issues, determining what was essential and capable of making great sacrifices in a war which had to be fought on the defensive. Both commanders-in-chief possessed brilliant subordinates in men like

Alexeiev, Ivanov and Foch, the latter, even at that time, having claims to be considered the first soldier in Europe.

The war in the first year depended less on the high commands than on subordinate leaders. Trench fighting and artillery combined to render major strategy ineffective so that the burden fell on the junior commands. The higher knowledge and training of the superior officer had seldom an opportunity to display itself. Only in the work of the submarine and aeroplane where men got out of the grip of the "machine" did brains find full scope. The doings of men like Von Weddigen, Max Horton and Nasmith under the sea, and Warneford and Garros in the air will rank with the most brilliant achievements of all time.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA

At the beginning of the war the Government of South Africa had cabled to the Imperial Government offering to undertake the defence of South Africa. The offer was accepted and the Union Defence Force came into being.

As a preliminary to the invasion of Southwest Africa which General Louis Botha, with the approval of the British Government, was about to undertake, martial law was proclaimed throughout South Africa. As a consequence a conspiracy was unearthed at the head of which was Lieutenant-Colonel Maritz, General De Wet and General Beyers, all former Boer leaders, and numbers of conspirators were arrested. Most of the Boers, be it said to their credit, remained loyal.

General Botha attacked and defeated General Beyers at Rustemberg on October 27th, while a small force under General Kemp was routed on November 5th. On November 7th the rebels under General De Wet defeated a small force of loyalists under General Cronje. On November 12th the loyalists under General Botha completely routed the rebel forces of De Wet in a fierce engagement and the insurrection was practically at an end.

The invasion of German Southwest Africa began on January 5, 1915, and proved to be an unqualified success. Everywhere the little invading force was victorious and the German command capitulated in July, 1915, bringing to an end the terrible oppression and massacres of the native Hereros who had been reduced by eighty per cent since 1890.

GERMANY'S LOST COLONIES

In August, 1914, Germany's colonial empire consisted of Togo, Kamerun, Southwest Africa, East Africa, 1,045,289 square miles in Africa; and New Guinea, Carolines, etc., Samoa, Kiao-Chow, 94,826 square miles elsewhere; a total of 1,140,115 square miles.

Togoland, which extends from the north shore of the Gulf of Guinea into the interior, was completely conquered by the end of August, 1914, by combined French and British forces.

The conquest of the Kamerun was more difficult but was complete by June, 1915. The difficulties of this campaign in the jungle and the heat of summer are indescribable.

The toughest of all the fighting in Africa was in German East Africa. The Germans began the offensive in late September, 1914, by attacking Mombasa, the capital of British East Africa and the terminus of the Uganda Railway. The attack was repelled and the offensive passed into the hands of the British who, in November, attacked Tanga and Gassin.

Gassin was taken by the British in January, but the garrison of 300 left there was recaptured by the Germans later on. In early June, 1915, the two British forces united, met the enemy and defeated him with heavy losses on June 22d.

The attempt to capture Tanga by the Anglo-Indian force was a failure. After the conquest of Southwest Africa, General Botha, with the co-operation of Rhodesia, raised a force of 20,000 men for service in East Africa. This force under General Smuts reached Mombasa on February 19, 1916.

The main offensive began on March 7th against the Germans who were defeated at Kalie. After six months of marching and fighting General Smuts's troops, seriously reduced by dysentery, were halted and reorganized in October, 1916, 12,000 blacks taking the place of as many white troops.

In April Belgian troops invaded the northwest part of the German protectorate, while in May a force of Union troops invaded it from the southwest. After seven months of strenuous campaign, two-thirds of German East Africa had been conquered by the combined efforts of the three allied forces.

The enormous distances to be covered, the small bodies of troops available, the almost impossible condition of supply and transport made it difficult to corner the enemy, and the campaign was prolonged through 1917 and 1918. In June, 1917, a new offensive was begun by the Allies and carried on relentlessly. On November 17th one of the two enemy forces remaining was caught. The other escaped into Portuguese territory and only surrendered in Northern Rhodesia on November 14, 1918.

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COMPLETE TRANSPORT OF THE SECOND CANADIAN MACHINE GUN BATTALION

The gun and ammunition carts of this famous fighting unit.

PLAYING THE CANADIAN SCOTTISH THROUGH YPRES

Scene after the battle of Langemarck, in April, 1915, in the war-scarred city, over which three great battles were fought. The Canadian Highlanders played a heroic part in the great victory which preceded the advance.

CHAPTER XIII

Canadians Save the Situation at Ypres

Within one hundred and fifty miles of London, in Belgium, lies the bloody salient of Ypres. There, after a few weeks in the trenches near Sailly, the Canadians arrived early in April and took over a section of front between the French and the British. At that time the French filled in a section between the Belgian and British armies.

To a Canadian, fresh from England, the pavé road between Poperinghe and Ypres, as I passed over it for the first time on April 17, 1915, was of the greatest interest. With parties of British soldiers, blue-coated French officers on horseback, despatch riders dashing past on motor cycles, transport wagons, motor ambulance convoys, speeding by with their cargoes of wounded sometimes peering through the back; old women coming from market, children playing on the roadside, great lumbering lorries and officers in swift touring cars, it seemed like a moving picture specially staged for a modern audience. Every bit of transport, every soldier, every pound of food, every shell and gun and every other necessity for the army in the salient had to pass over that broad straight highway flanked by tall naked trees and intersected by trenches and wire entanglements. The country-side was as flat as a board and the roadside ditches brimming over with water made it impossible to dig proper trenches in the wet and soggy ground.

PERSONAL IMPRESSIONS OF YPRES

The city of Ypres with its houses of white stucco and red brick was clean and interesting. In the twelfth century it had a population of 200,000 people and had been not only one of the most powerful cities in Flanders, but a city richer, larger and more influential than London at that time. Though originally well fortified the fortifications had long ago been dismantled. The population had decreased to 20,000 and, with the exception of a few magnificent buildings like the glorious old Cloth Hall

and the Church of St. Martin's, its ancient glory had disappeared.

To a Canadian this beautiful Cloth Hall of Ypres, with its graceful turrets, its square tower and its carved archways, even in ruin was something never to be forgotten. The roof had disappeared, the wonderful carved walls and statues had been smashed, and the interior woodwork, containing the famous painted panels, had been destroyed by incendiary shells.

The city of Ypres was the centre or hub of the Ypres salient which curved about it in the form of a semi-circle. Tens of thousands of British and French troops had already laid down their lives in its defence, for it was the gateway to the ports on the English Channel.

The severest fighting of the war had taken place in the previous autumn along this line, and the desperate nature of the struggle in the first battle of Ypres had never been exceeded in the history of British arms.

It will be remembered that the Canadian division at that time was under the command of General Alderson, a Britisher, and the staff included several highly-trained British staff officers. Nevertheless the commands were practically all in the hands of Canadians,—lawyers, business men, real estate agents, newspaper men and other amateur soldiers, who, in civilian life, as officers in the Canadian militia, had spent more or less time in the study of the theory of warfare. These amateur soldiers were faced by armies whose officers and men were professionals in the art and science of warfare and regarded themselves as invincible.

On April 22, 1915, the writer visited the Ypres salient for the second time.

On that April day the very essence of spring was in the air; the hedges of northern France were beginning to whiten with bloom, and the wild flowers were thick in the forest of Nieppe near Merville. It was the time back in Canada when the spring feeling suddenly gets into the blood, when one throws work to the winds and takes to the woods in search of the first violets.

It was quite evident to me, as I retraversed the streets of Ypres, that it had been heavily shelled since I had been there a few days before. Many more houses had been smashed, unmended shell holes were seen in the roads and the Cloth Hall showed further

evidences of shell fire. Scarcely a soldier was visible. We studied maps of the salient to learn the topography and saw where the French right joined up with the left of the Third brigade of Canadians and where the right of the Second Canadian brigade linked up with the British.

WHERE NO BIRDS SANG

Passing through Ypres we drove on to Wieltze, intending to walk into the salient to see that desolate, dreary, shell-shattered area where no birds sang. As we walked to the edge of the village, where we had left the car, we noticed a peasant planting seeds in the garden in front of his little house. The earth had all been dug and raked smooth by a boy and a couple of children. To our "How do you do," he replied: "It is a fine day," looking up at the sun with evident satisfaction.

As we tramped along towards St. Julien our attention was attracted to clouds of greenish-yellow smoke ascending from the part of the line occupied by the French. We wondered what the smoke could be coming from in such volume close to the firing line. We seated ourselves on a disused trench and looked about us. An aeroplane flying low overhead dropped some fireballs which seemed to be the signal for the beginning of a violent artillery bombardment. Rising along the French line we could see this yellowish-green cloud ascending on a front of at least three miles and drifting, at a height of perhaps a hundred feet, towards us.

"That must be the poison gas we have heard vague rumours about," I remarked. The gas rose in great thick clouds as if it had been projected from nozzles, expanding as it ascended. Here and there brown clouds seemed to be mixed with the general yellowish-green ones.

"It looks like chlorine," I said, and the captain agreed that it probably was.

The cannonade increased in intensity. About five minutes after it began a hoarse whistle, increasing to a roar like that of a railroad train, passed overhead.

"For Ypres!" we ejaculated, and looking back we saw a cloud as big as a church rise up from that ill-fated city, followed by the sound of the explosion of a fifteen-inch shell. Thereafter those great shells succeeded one another at regular intervals,

the sound of each crash following the great black cloud in Ypres. The bombardment continued to grow in volume. In a field not two hundred yards away numerous "coal boxes" exploded, throwing up columns of mud and water like so many geysers. Shells of various calibres, whistling and screaming, flew over our heads from German batteries as well as from our own batteries replying to them. The air seemed to be full of shells flying in all directions. The gas cloud gradually grew less dense, but the bombardment redoubled in violence as battery after battery joined in the angry chorus.

Across the fields we could see guns drawn by galloping horses taking up new positions. One gun we saw unlimbered not three hundred yards from us, when within two minutes a German shell exploded, apparently not twenty feet away from it, and the gun was quickly moved to another position.

Occasionally we thought that we could hear heavy rifle fire and machine-gun fire, but the din was too great to distinguish much detail. The expression commonly used at the front—"Hell let loose"—was the only term at all descriptive of the scene.

CHLORINE GAS

By this time our eyes had begun to run water and become bloodshot. The fumes of the gas had reached us, irritated our throats and lungs and made us cough. We decided that this gas was chiefly chlorine, with perhaps an admixture of bromine, but that there was probably something else present responsible for the irritation to our eyes.

The Canadian artillery had evidently received a message to support, for down to our right the crash of our field guns along the hedges added to the uproar. Along the road from St. Julien came a small party of zouaves with their baggy trousers and red fez caps. We stepped out to speak to them and found that they belonged to the French Red Cross. They had been driven out of their dressing station by the poison gas and complained bitterly of the effect of it on their lungs. Shortly afterwards the first wounded Canadian appeared—a Highlander, swathed in white bandages, sitting on a little donkey cart driven by a peasant.

We could scarcely credit what followed.

Coming across the fields towards us we saw men running,

dropping flat on their faces, dodging into disused trenches and keeping every possible bit of shelter between themselves and the enemy while they ran. As they came closer we could see that they were French Moroccan troops, badly frightened. Some of them lay down in a nearby trench and lit cigarettes, only to start up in terror to run on again. Some of them even threw away their equipment after they had passed us. It was now quite evident to us that the Moroccan troops had given way before the gas attack.

CANADIANS BLOCK THE ROAD TO CALAIS

Then our hearts swelled with the pride of race that so seldom comes to a man, for along the road from Ypres came a platoon of soldiers, marching rapidly. They were Canadians, and we knew that our reserve brigade was even now on the way to make the attempt to block the road to Calais so much desired by the German high command.

Bullets began to spit up the dust around us and about six-thirty we turned back towards Wieltze.

Canadian soldiers with boxes of cartridges on their shoulders ran up the road towards the trenches; others, carrying movable barbed wire entanglements, followed them. A company of Canadians took to the fields, on leaving Wieltze, and began advancing in short rushes towards the German front. Another company was just leaving the village as we entered it, loading their rifles as they hurried along.

As we approached Wieltze we could see ammunition wagons galloping along the road, which forks from Wieltze and runs to Langemarck. Turning into the fields they would wheel sharply, deposit their loads of shell and gallop wildly off again for more ammunition, while the crashes and flashes of the guns showed that they were being served with redoubled vigour.

At the edge of the village the peasant, whom we had seen in the afternoon preparing his little garden, came forward and asked "if Monsieur did not think it would be wiser for the women and children to leave." Behind him were the members of his family, each with bundles suited to their respective ages. The smallest, a girl of about six years of age, had a tiny bundle in a handkerchief; the next, a boy about eight, had a larger one. All were dressed in their best Sunday clothes and carried umbrellas. As we talked

to the father, the eldest, a boy of eighteen, came down the path with his grandmother, a little old lady perhaps eighty years of age and weighing about as many pounds. He crouched down, she put her arms around his neck, he took her feet under his arms, and straightening up, he set off with his burden towards Ypres with the rest of the family trailing behind.

Small detachments of Canadian troops moved rapidly through the streets of Wieltze. Around the Canadian advanced dressing station crowds of wounded Turcos and Canadians waited their turn to have their wounds dressed. Villagers were loading their donkeys or dog-carts with household goods and setting out in all haste towards Ypres. Sometimes even their family cow was driven before them. We picked up a load of wounded Turcos and carried them to the ambulance at Ypres. Fresh shell holes pitted the road and dead horses lay at the side of it. Broken stone, pavé and bricks lay scattered about everywhere.

All the while the roar of guns and the whistle of flying shells increased. We reached the ambulance in Ypres between dusk and dark and forced our unwilling Turcos to descend. We had just entered the building when there was a heavy crash in the street outside, followed by the rattling and crash of glass and falling of bricks, while at the same time the piercing shrieks of a woman rang out down the street. In spite of this the surgeons kept on operating as if they were in a hospital in Canada. It is one of the beauties of the army system that each one of the army carries on under all circumstances.

It was too risky to go through the centre of the town on account of falling walls, chimneys and fragments of houses. We, therefore, skirted the town and tried to get down a side road to Vlamertinge. It was choked with refugees and transport and there was no alternative but to drive back through Ypres into the main Ypres-Vlamertinge road. There wagons, with horses whipped into a gallop, began to pass us going the opposite way, and motor transport lorries drove through at full speed. As we cleared the city the traffic became heavier and we gradually worked into, and formed part of, a great human stream with various eddies and back-currents.

It was now dark, and but for the feeble light of a young moon, which sometimes broke through the clouds and faintly illuminated

the road, nothing could be seen. All headlights were out and not even the light of a hand-lantern or flash light was permitted by the military police. Yet one's eyes became accustomed to the dark, and, when the pale moonlight came through, we could dimly see over on our right a line of French-Turcos moving like ghosts along towards Vlamertinge. Next them were fleeing refugees with their bundles, wagons and pushcarts, and their animals being driven before them. If there were a cart the old man or old lady would invariably be seated on the top of the load, sometimes holding the baby. In the centre of the road we groped our way along with infinite care. A shadow would sometimes bear down on the car and suddenly swerve to one side as a horseman trotted by. A motor lorry would approach within a few feet of us before the drivers could see and stop before crashing into each other. On the left were troops "standing to" all along the roadside. We felt very proud when we realized that they were Canadians and that they were the only troops at hand to plug the gap made by the German poison gases.

At one time the road became jammed and we had visions of staying all night under fire in the midst of a road block. Gradually, with the aid of mounted gendarmes and our military police, the mass, composed of cows, wagons, horses, dogcarts, men, women and children with hand wagons and baby carriages, motor lorries, horse transport, lumber wagons, motor cycles, touring cars and mounted horsemen, was dissolved and slowly began again to flow in both directions.

Looking backward we could see the red glow of fires burning in different parts of Ypres and the bright flashes of shells as they burst over that much German-hated city. All around the salient star-shells flared into the sky and remained suspended for a few minutes as they threw a white glare over the surrounding country, silhouetting the trees against the sky like ghosts before they died away and fell to earth.

At last we reached Vlamertinge and entered the building occupied by the Canadian field ambulance. Lying on the floors were scores of soldiers with faces of a blue or ghastly green colour, choking, vomiting and gasping for air in their struggles with death. The faint odor of chlorine gas hung about the place. These were some of our own Canadians who had been poisoned, and I felt,

as I stood and watched them in agony that the nation, which had planned in cold-blood the use of such a foul method of warfare, should not be allowed to exist as a nation among nations, but should be taken and choked in turn until in humbleness and on bended knees it, too, craved for mercy.

At midnight we arrived home, gray and ghastly from the effects of our experience with the poison gas and its consequences upon our men.

THE BATTLE IN DETAIL

Before the battle the English and Canadians held the line from Broodseinde to a point half a mile north of St. Julien on the crest of the Grafenstafel Ridge. The French prolonged this line to Steenstraate on the Yperlee Canal. The Canadian division held a line extending about five miles from the Ypres-Roulers railway to the Ypres-Poelcapelle Road. The division in the front line consisted of two brigades of infantry and the artillery brigades.

About five o'clock the asphyxiating gas, which proved to be chlorine, was projected from a large number of cylinders brought into the German front line trenches, and was carried by a gentle wind over the Canadian and French lines. The native French soldiers sustained the brunt of the gas attack and gave way all along the line. The consequence was that the Canadian line remained with its left flank exposed in the air. The Third or Highland brigade under Brigadier-General Turner, on the left, was to some extent disorganized by the gas, but the men held firm.

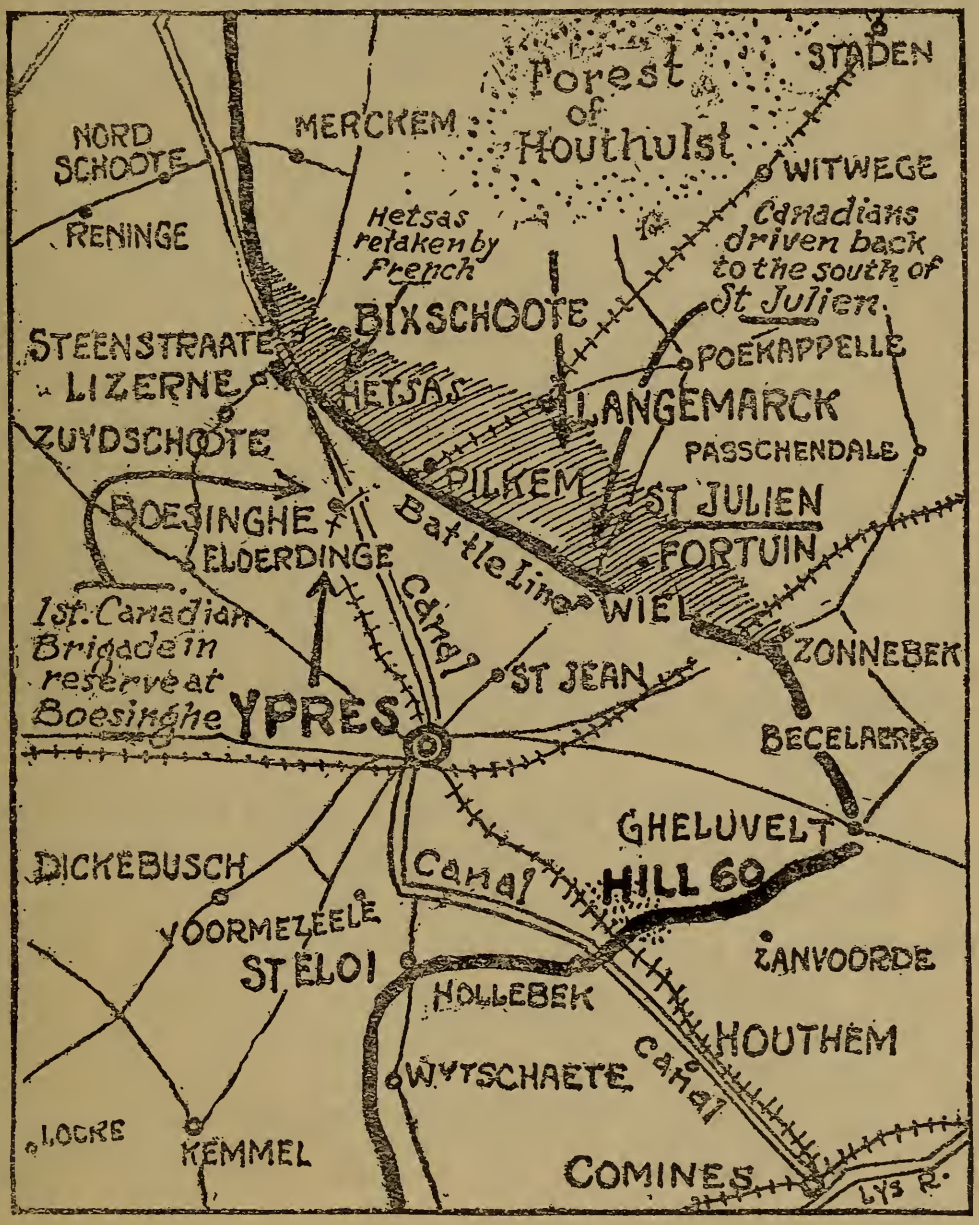
As the German line pressed forward through the gap left by the retreating French it was necessary for the Third brigade to swing around to the south to prevent envelopment.

It was not possible to throw the First infantry brigade, in reserve, into the line at a moment's notice, and the enemy, advancing rapidly, reached St. Julien two miles in the rear of the original French line.

In the initial rush made through the breach four British guns loaned to the French were captured.

A counter-attack, made after midnight on April 22d-23d by the Tenth and Sixteenth battalions, recaptured these guns, but it was found that they had been destroyed. The Third infantry brigade was shortly re-enforced by the Second, Third, Seventh and Tenth

battalions. All night long a battle of the most violent nature raged, in which the Germans made frequent assaults upon the Canadian positions. It seemed impossible that Canadian civilian



Where the Germans Delivered Their First Gas Attack in 1915

soldiers, fighting under such adverse conditions, could possibly maintain a prolonged resistance.

Early Friday morning further reinforcements, consisting of British troops under Colonel Geddes of the Buffs, arrived and this

force, which became known as "Geddes's Detachment" played a remarkable part in the struggle which followed.

At dawn on Friday the Second Canadian brigade still held its positions, but the Third Canadian brigade, as stated, had swung back upon St. Julien. At this time the Germans made a powerful attempt to outflank the Third brigade, and, to afford relief, a counter-attack by the First and Fourth Canadian battalions was made upon the first line German trenches.

This remarkable attack was pushed home in broad daylight in the face of a heavy frontal fire into the open gap created by the retreat. It was made in the face of tremendously superior forces of men and guns, and its very boldness,—for it was practically unsupported by reserves,—made for its success.

In the face of a terrific opposition the German trenches were won back and held until Sunday night when the remnants of these shattered but victorious battalions were relieved by fresh troops.

Another gas cloud was projected on Friday morning at dawn upon both the Second and Third brigades without material result. The Canadians had by this time realized that it was best to face the gas cloud. It was discovered that breathing through a double handful of moist earth, or a wet handkerchief, absorbed a great deal of the gas, and nullified to a considerable extent its poisonous effects.

During that night it appeared that several German divisions attempted to drive back the Third brigade and envelop its left wing. This enveloping movement succeeded to some extent; a certain number of Germans managed to get between the wood and St. Julien, apparently for the purpose of isolating the brigade from its base. Though vastly outnumbered and wearied almost beyond endurance, the Canadian Highlanders of the Third brigade hung on and maintained their position. Many were the deeds of gallantry accomplished that day, enough, indeed, for a chapter in itself.

By all the rules of war the Third Canadian brigade was surrounded and should have fallen back, but they held the position and thereby once more dislocated German psychology and German calculations, which could not conceive of men holding such an apparently impossible position without assurance of adequate support. It was only when the artillery fire became so intense

as to render the trenches untenable that the Canadians, contesting every yard, fell back until the point of the salient had fallen in to St. Julien.

On Friday afternoon the Second King's Own Scottish Borderers and the First Royal West Kents reinforced the Canadian left and the French attacking from the canal bank much farther to the left gave assistance in relieving the pressure.

St. Julien itself became untenable and a farther retreat of the Third brigade was ordered. This left the Second brigade, then commanded by Brigadier-General Currie, in exactly the same position which the Third Brigade had been in, and the same tactical manœuvre of swinging around the left flank to conform to the movement of the Third brigade was adopted.

General Currie had held his trenches from Thursday afternoon till Sunday afternoon at which time, even, they were not abandoned. They had been obliterated. In the interval the left flank of the Second brigade was held by the Eighth battalion of Winnipeg under Colonel Lipsett, and though at one time driven from the trenches by a discharge of gas the "Little Black Devils" counter-attacked and recaptured their trenches.

At this time two British regiments, the Eighth Durham light infantry and the First Hampshires, filled in the gap between the Second Canadian brigade and the Twenty-eighth division.

On Sunday the situation was such that it became necessary to make an offensive as the surest way of stopping the enemy advance. General Alderson therefore ordered an attack by two British brigades, the Tenth and Northumberlands, which had been brought up in support. Sweeping through the Canadian lines they gave ringing cheers for our men, the first intimation that the Canadian efforts were being appreciated by the British soldier. The attack succeeded and the German advance for the time was stayed.

On Monday morning the two Canadian brigades were relieved by the British and went into reserve. It became necessary, however, to again call upon the Second brigade and General Currie marched his men, sadly reduced in strength, to the apex of the line which they held throughout the day. On Tuesday the brigade was again in reserve and on Wednesday went into billets.

On May 4th General Alderson handed over the command of

this section of front to the Fourth British division and removed his headquarters to Nieppe.

Such is a brief naked account of the Canadian fight of St. Julien. No kind of description can give a picture of the terrible conditions which our men were up against during those eventful days.

Without adequate artillery support, and overwhelmed with shrapnel and high explosives which pulverized our trenches, the Canadians hung on. Groups of men, isolated in sections of trench or in shell holes, gathered up the rifles of the dead and carried on rapid fire until they almost dropped from fatigue. In some places platoons were reduced to six and seven men, who, without officers or even non-commissioned officers, carried on the battle.

The Canadians to a man seemed obsessed with the idea that this was their particular battle and that they would perish where they stood rather than give way. It seemed as if the "Canadian clodhoppers," as the Germans had contemptuously called them, were in honour bound to stop that great German rush for the Channel. Only when full details are available, and the individual diaries and records of officers and units have been tabulated and compared, will the full story of the battle called "St. Julien" be made known to the Canadian people.

The Canadians had proved themselves beyond all question and, in the words of General French, had saved the situation.

Sir John French in his despatch said:

> In spite of the danger to which they were exposed the Canadians held their ground with a magnificent display of tenacity and courage, and it is not too much to say that the bearing and conduct of these splendid troops averted a disaster which might have been attended with the most serious consequences.

It seemed an extraordinary thing that the Germans did not pour through the great gap which they had made that first night for there was little there to stop them. The passage which they so earnestly desired through the British lines to the Channel lay wide open before them. As in other cases they seemed to be unable to fully realize the situation and take advantage of it. They broke a great piece out of the line, but they did not know what to do when they had broken it.

The effect of the Canadian success was immediate both in

France and in England. The Colonials had made good and were fitted to take their place by the side of the finest British and French fighting divisions. Everywhere throughout France the word "Canada" was greeted with enthusiasm and the work of the division was appreciated at its fullest value.

The Canadian division had sustained 6,000 casualties. The men and officers as they appeared in billets afterwards were so changed in appearance that some of them were difficult to recognize. They were very tired and could recall only a succession of blurred impressions of great noise, ferocious fighting and terrible excitement.

The losses of individual battalions were very heavy, a typical example being the First battalion which lost 400 out of a total of 800 men during one six-hundred-yard advance.

The effect of the battle of Ypres was immediately felt in all its significance throughout the Dominion. The high proportion of casualties, the nature of the enemy attack and the quality of the enemy troops combined to make this battle the most important feat of arms which had ever taken place in Canada's history.

In the great contest of world powers the men of the young colony had shown their ability to take their place with the finest that the world could produce. Twenty thousand Canadians with eight months' training had, under conditions which were unique, held their own. Smothered with clouds of poisonous gas, outflanked, and with few reserves to support them, the Canadian troops held their own for days against the most highly trained troops of Europe.

It was a great shock to the Canadian public when it was realized that over 6,000 of a division composed of 20,000 men were casualties. For the first time the terrible nature of modern warfare was fully comprehended. It was the first personal experience of young Canada and, like all great first experiences, it left an indelible impression. Every Canadian, however, experienced a pride which was something new. In the test of battle, perhaps one of the greatest tests of manhood, Canadian men had made good; they had proved superior to troops whose lifelong training had been war, and who were equipped with every known engine of destruction in unlimited quantities. It was a strange mixture of pride, sorrow and determination to carry on to the

limit of our resources which comprised the dominant feeling of the Canadian people at that time. Everywhere flags were flown at half-mast and memorial services held throughout the country for the men, who, enduring untold privations and suffering, had paid the great price for the freedom of Canadians and the world.

Great Britain also paid her tribute, and a memorial service was held in St. Paul's on May 2d for the Canadians who had laid down their lives at Ypres. The clergy officiating were the Bishop of London, the Dean of St. Paul's, the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Chaplain General of the Forces.

Representatives of the whole empire gathered at that service which began by the massed bands playing the Dead March. It was followed by a most eloquent tribute by the Bishop of London who said: "It was on that tremendous day when the French and British had been overpowered by poison gas that the manhood of Canada shone out like pure gold; the example of these men will never die but will remain as a perpetual inspiration to their successors."

The following is the text of the speech made to the Canadian troops under his command, after twelve strenuous days and nights of fighting, from April 23d to May 4th, 1915, by Lieutenant-General E. A. H. Alderson, C.B., commanding the Canadian corps:

I tell you truly that my heart is so full that I hardly know how to speak to you. It is full of two feelings—the first being sorrow for the loss of those comrades of ours who have gone; and the second, pride in what the First Canadian division has done.

As regards our comrades who have lost their lives—let us speak of them with our caps off—my faith in the Almighty is such that I am perfectly sure that when men die, as they have died, doing their duty and fighting for their country, for the empire, and to save the situation for others,—in fact, have died for their friends—no matter what their past lives have been, no matter what they have done that they ought not to have done (as all of us do), I am perfectly sure that the Almighty takes them and looks after them at once. Lads, we cannot leave them better than like that.

Now I feel that we may, without any false pride, think a little of what the division has done during the past few days.

I would, first of all, tell you that I have never been so proud of anything in my life as I am of my armlet with "Canada" on it. I thank you, and congratulate you from the bottom of my heart, for the part each one of you has taken in giving me this feeling of pride.

I think it is possible that all of you do not quite realize that, if we had retired on the evening of April 22d—when our Allies fell back before the gas and left our left flank quite open—the whole of the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-eighth divisions would probably have been cut off. Certainly they would not have got away a gun or a vehicle of any sort, and probably not more than half the infantry would have escaped.

This is what our commander-in-chief meant when he telegraphed, as he did, that "the Canadians saved the situation." My lads, if ever men had a right to be proud in this world, you have.

I know my military history pretty well, and I cannot think of an instance, especially when the cleverness and determination of the enemy is taken into account, in which troops were placed in such a difficult position; nor can I think of an instance in which so much depended on the standing fast of one division.

You will remember that the last time I spoke to you, just before you went into the trenches at Sailly, now over two months ago, I told you about my old regiment—the Royal West Kents—having gained a reputation for never budging from their trenches, no matter how they were attacked. I said then I was quite sure that, in a short time, the army out here would be saying the same of you.

I little thought—none of us thought—how soon those words would come true. But now, today, not only the army out here, but all Canada, all England, and all the empire are saying that you, too, stand fast.

There is one more word I would say to you before I stop. You have made a reputation second to none in this war; but, remember, no man can live on his reputation. You must keep on adding to it. And I feel just as sure that you will do so as I did two months ago when I told you that I knew you would make a reputation when the opportunity came.

I am now going to shake hands with your officers, and as I do so, I want you to feel that I am shaking hands with each one of you, as I would actually do if time permitted.

SIR JOHN FRENCH'S SEVENTH DISPATCH

From the Field-Marshall Commanding-in-Chief, The British Army in France.

To the Secretary of State for War, War Office, London, S. W.

Headquarters, 15th June, 1915.

My Lord:

I have the honour to report that since the date of my last dispatch (5th April, 1915) the army in France under my command has been heavily engaged opposite both flanks of the line held by the British forces.

I. In the north the town and district of Ypres have once more in this campaign been successfully defended against vigorous and sustained attacks made by large forces of the enemy, and supported by a mass

of heavy and field artillery, which, not only in number, but also in weight and calibre, is superior to any concentration of guns which has previously assailed that part of the line.

In the south a vigorous offensive has again been taken by troops of the First Army, in the course of which a large area of entrenched and fortified ground has been captured from the enemy, whilst valuable support has been afforded to the attack which our Allies have carried on with such marked success against the enemy's positions to the east of Arras and Lens.

II. I much regret that during the period under report the fighting has been characterized on the enemy's side by a cynical and barbarous disregard of the well-known usages of civilized war and a flagrant defiance of the Hague Convention.

All the scientific resources of Germany have apparently been brought into play to produce a gas of so virulent and poisonous a nature that any human being brought into contact with it is first paralysed and then meets with a lingering and agonizing death.

The enemy has invariably preceded, prepared, and supported his attacks by a discharge in stupendous volume of these poisonous gas fumes whenever the wind was favourable.

Such weather conditions have only prevailed to any extent in the neighbourhood of Ypres, and there can be no doubt that the effect of these poisonous fumes materially influenced the operations in that theatre, until experience suggested effective counter-measures, which have since been so perfected as to render them innocuous.

The brain power and thought which has evidently been at work before this unworthy method of making war reached the pitch of efficiency which has been demonstrated in its practice shows that the Germans must have harboured these designs for a long time.

As a soldier I cannot help expressing the deepest regret and some surprise that an army which hitherto has claimed to be the chief exponent of the chivalry of war should have stooped to employ such devices against brave and gallant foes. . . .

It was at the commencement of the second battle of Ypres on the evening of the 22d April, referred to in paragraph I of this report, that the enemy first made use of asphyxiating gas.

Some days previously I had complied with General Joffre's request to take over the trenches occupied by the French, and on the evening of the 22d the troops holding the lines east of Ypres were posted as follows:

"From Steenstraate to the east of Langemarck, as far as the Poelcappelle Road, a French division.

"Thence, in a southeasterly direction toward the Passchendaele-Becelaere Road, the Canadian division.

"Thence a division took up the line in a southerly direction east of Zonnebeke to a point west of Becelaere, whence another division continued the line southeast to the northern limit of the corps on its right."

THE CHARGE OF THE FOURTH CANADIAN BATTALION AT YPRES IN THE FACE OF A MURDEROUS GERMAN SHELL FIRE

During one of the most terrible and deadly engagements of the whole war, when a powerful German outflanking movement was being rapidly developed, the Fourth Canadian Battalion, to save the day, forced a counter-attack in the face of a withering fire. Lieutenant-Colonel Birchall, leading his men, fell dead at the moment when it seemed that the attack could not succeed. With a cry of anger, the attack was renewed, the German trenches were taken, and the day was saved.

HOW THE CANADIANS RETOOK LOST TRENCHES AT YPRES

The Canadians won fresh laurels by their heroic recapture, under heavy enemy fire, of lost ground in the vicinity of Ypres. The fighting was of the fiercest character and though our men lost heavily the ground was covered with German dead.

Of the Fifth eorps there were four battalions in divisional reserve about Ypres; the Canadian division had one battalion in divisional reserve, and the First Canadian brigade in army reserve. An infantry brigade, which had just been withdrawn after suffering heavy losses on Hill 60, was resting about Vlamertinghe.

Following a heavy bombardment, the enemy attacked the French Division at about 5 P. M., using asphyxiating gases for the first time. Aircraft reported that at about 5 P. M. thick yellow smoke had been seen issuing from the German trenches between Langemarck and Bixschoote. The French reported that two simultaneous attacks had been made east of the Ypres-Staden railway, in which these asphyxiating gases had been employed.

What follows almost defies description. The effect of these poisonous gases was so virulent as to render the whole of the line held by the French division mentioned above practically incapable of any action at all. It was at first impossible for anyone to realize what had actually happened. The smoke and fumes hid everything from sight and hundreds of men were thrown into a comatose or dying condition, and within an hour the whole position had to be abandoned, together with about fifty guns.

I wish particularly to repudiate any idea of attaching the least blame to the French division for this unfortunate incident.

After all the examples our gallant Allies have shown of dogged and tenacious courage in the many trying situations in which they have been placed throughout the course of this campaign it is quite superfluous for me to dwell on this aspect of the incident, and I would only express my firm conviction that, if any troops in the world had been able to hold their trenches in the face of such a treacherous and altogether unexpected onslaught, the French Division would have stood firm.

THE STAND OF THE CANADIANS

The left flank of the Canadian division was thus left dangerously exposed to serious attack in flank, and there appeared to be a prospect of their being overwhelmed and of a successful attempt by the Germans to cut off the British troops occupying the salient to the east.

In spite of the danger to which they were exposed the Canadians held their ground with a magnificent display of tenacity and courage; and it is not too much to say that the bearing and conduct of these splendid troops averted a disaster which might have been attended with the most serious consequences.

They were supported with great promptitude by the reserves of the divisions holding the salient and by a brigade which had been resting in billets.

Throughout the night the enemy's attacks were repulsed, effective counter-attacks were delivered, and at length touch was gained with the French right, and a new line was formed.

The Second London Heavy Battery, which had been attached to the

Canadian division, was posted behind the right of the French bivision, and, being involved in their retreat, fell into the enemy's hands. It was recaptured by the Canadians in their counter-attack, but the guns could not be withdrawn before the Canadians were again driven back. . . .

In the course of these two or three days many circumstances combined to render the situation east of the Ypres Canal very critical and most difficult to deal with.

The confusion caused by the sudden retirement of the French division, and the necessity for closing up the gap and checking the enemy's advance at all costs, led to a mixing up of units and a sudden shifting of the areas of command, which was quite unavoidable. Fresh units, as they came up from the south, had to be pushed into the firing line in an area swept by artillery fire which, owing to the capture of the French guns, we were unable to keep down.

All this led to very heavy casualties; and I wish to place on record the deep admiration which I feel for the resource and presence of mind evinced by the leaders actually on the spot.

The parts taken by Major-General Snow and Brigadier-General Hull were reported to me as being particularly marked in this respect.

An instance of this occurred on the afternoon of the 24th when the enemy succeeded in breaking through the line at St. Julien.

Brigadier-General Hull, acting under the orders of Lieutenant-General Alderson, organized a powerful counter-attack with his own brigade and some of the nearest available units. He was called upon to control, with only his brigade staff, parts of battalions from six separate divisions which were quite new to the ground. Although the attack did not succeed in retaking St. Julien, it effectually checked the enemy's further advance.

It was only on the morning of the 25th that the enemy were able to force back the left of the Canadian division from the point where it had originally joined the French line. . . .

CHAPTER XIV

The Battles of Festubert and Givenchy

During the months of April and May, 1915, the French had been carrying on a series of battles along the whole front. In the north the last attack developed into a long-drawn-out struggle in the neighbourhood of Loos and Souchez.

The French had proved victorious in most of these affairs but had run up against an entirely new proposition. The German line had been broken in numerous places, but, instead of giving way, the series of sections isolated proved to be veritable forts bristling with machine guns which could enfilade any troops attempting to get by. Some of these struggles such as those at the cemetery at Ablain, the sugar refinery at Souchez, the White Road and the Labyrinth, were of the most terrible description.

The Labyrinth, to take an example, consisted of a series of surface and underground passages, wired and protected by every ingenious device known. The German burrows were sometimes fifty feet deep, and the struggle, carried on by electric flash lamps in those underground galleries, was more like something evolved in the imagination of a Jules Verne than reality. During this period the Allies began to realize what a powerful weapon the Germans had created by their accumulation of artillery and shells and it was realized that such a machine could only be mastered by a similar machine of superior power.

As an auxiliary effort to support the French in their struggle in the Artois the British began the battle of Aubers Ridge on May 9th. Principally it was designed to detain the German Seventh corps in position and prevent troops from being sent as re-enforcements southward. If it proved successful we would win the Aubers Ridge which would enable us to threaten Lille and La Bassée. The British attack was carried on by the First corps, the Indian corps and the Eighth division; the latter made the chief attack in front of Fromelles. It was an utter failure; the artillery preparation had proved quite insufficient to destroy the wire entanglements and

little progress was made, though many deeds of personal bravery and brilliance were rendered possible by its very failure.

One had only to go through the ambulances and hospitals as did the writer during this series of engagements to realize what an impossible proposition our soldiers had been engaged in. They were quite depressed, realizing fully that the artillery support given them was quite inadequate and that they had been sent against impossible positions and mown down by machine guns like wheat.

The next attack was on May 16th at Festubert by the Seventh division and Indian corps. The ground chosen was exceedingly difficult, being traversed by numerous ditches and water courses. The struggle continued during the month of May with little gain of ground and with heavy casualties. On May 19th the Second and Third divisions were relieved and their places taken by the Canadian division and the Ninth Territorial Highland division.

The fighting at Festubert, though lacking in military success, was important from the fact that it was responsible for producing political changes in England.

The *Times* correspondent returning from the front reported in the issue of May 14th that the first part of the battle of Festubert had failed through lack of high explosives. The British public, stirred by the heavy casualty lists and the failure of the spring offensives, upon which they had fixed high hopes, set to work to discover what was wrong. As a result it became quite clear to the public that in future the fate of battles must be determined by guns and munitions; therefore there must be no shortage of munitions henceforth on any British front. As a direct result there was a crisis from which emerged the British coalition government. England began to see clearly the difficulties of war and the necessity of organizing her industries. This crisis paved the way for the War Committee, for the Allied Grand-Council-of-War in Paris, and finally for the pooling of all the allied interests and the placing of the allied armies under one supreme command.

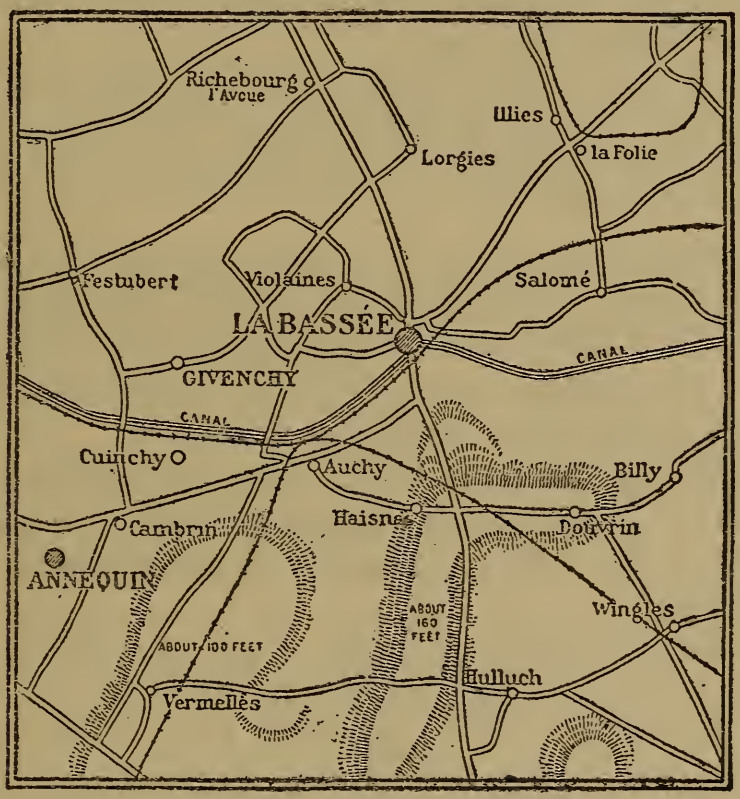
After the second battle of Ypres the Canadian division had been re-enforced from the Canadian bases in England and though these re-enforcements had not been trained in trench warfare the division took its place in the trenches on May 18th.

Little time was available for the study of the ground and the

Canadians as a whole were not fully aware of the situation and the sector they were about to attack.

After some preliminary engagements an attack was launched on May 20th against the position known as the Orchard by the Canadian Highlanders. After sustaining heavy casualties through machine-gun fire and unexpected delays from ditches and barbed wire the Orchard position was taken.

On May 21st another objective, known as the Bexhill Redoubt,



WHERE THE CANADIANS FOUGHT THE BATTLES OF FESTUBERT AND GIVENCHY

was taken after a preliminary artillery bombardment, but this was recaptured the following day after German artillery had completely destroyed the trenches captured. At this time, owing to a shortage of men, King Edward's Horse and the Strathcona Horse took their position as infantry in the trenches for the first time, and were subsequently heartily congratulated by General Alderson for the work they had done.

On May 23d a second attack was made on the Bexhill position and the redoubt was again occupied, though the Bexhill position proper had still to be taken. In the attempt to take this position

heavy casualties of men and officers were sustained. Trenches were held all day with heavy losses from enemy shelling.

The fighting at this stage was of the most dashing description and many deeds of gallantry were recorded and many honours won, Among others, Sergeant Hickey of the Fourth Canadian battalion won the Victoria Cross, but was killed later by a stray bullet.

It was realized that troops were being wasted in large numbers in the attempt to take an impossible position, with the guns and munitions at our command, and the battle was brought to a close by Sir John French, who said:

> I had now reason to consider that the battle which was commenced by the First Army on May 9th and renewed on the 16th, having attained for the moment the immediate object I had in view, should not be further actively proceeded with.

In the battle of Festubert the enemy was driven from a position which was strongly entrenched and fortified and ground was won on a front of four miles to an average depth of 600 yards.

About 785 prisoners were captured and ten machine guns as well as some material and equipment taken.

On May 31st the Canadian division was withdrawn from the territory it had seized from the enemy and moved to the south end of the British line where it carried on trench warfare until the middle of June.

The battle of Givenchy, which, taken as a whole, was but an isolated battle in the long struggle that occurred on the western front, was in reality a very bloody affair for the Canadian division.

On June 15th the Canadian battalions began the attack in support of the Seventh British division. Though the Canadians won the first line of trenches the British division on their left was unable to advance, in consequence of which the Canadians were enfiladed. The affair was summarized in the despatch of Sir John French of October 15th:

> By an attack delivered on the evening of June 15th after a prolonged bombardment the First Canadian brigade obtained possession of the German front line trenches northeast of Givenchy, but were unable to retain them owing to their flanks being too much exposed.

The losses of the Canadians in killed and wounded were very heavy; in one battalion of twenty-three combatant officers only three missed death or wounds. It was in this affair that Lieutenant

Campbell of the First Canadian battalion had his entire machine-gun crew killed or wounded in the advance. The machine-gun crew, which reached the trench, was reduced to Lieutenant Campbell and Private Vincent. The tripod was missing and Lieutenant Campbell strapped the machine gun on the back of Private Vincent and fired continuously, holding up the German bombers who tried to work their way along the trench. Finally Lieutenant Campbell was wounded and Vincent dragged the gun, which was too hot to carry, away to safety. Lieutenant Campbell, though severely wounded, succeeded in crawling through water and mud to safety, but died in hospital the following day. He was awarded the Victoria Cross.

After several days of heavy artillery fire the Canadian corps was relieved and moved northward to pass the summer in "Plug Street Woods."

On July 1st, "Dominion Day," the first one spent in the war zone, was celebrated by the Canadians with dinners, games and sports enlivened by band concerts.

The costly nature of the fighting in the battles of Festubert and Givenchy, particularly in view of the advances made, may best be gauged by the casualties. In the battles of Festubert and Givenchy the Canadians sustained 2,900 casualties.

The heavy losses of the British in this type of fighting brought to the British people for the first time a true realization of the nature of the fighting. They learned that a machine gun properly placed could sweep down whole battalions of brave men. They learned that wire entanglements, properly constructed, could hold up whole divisions of the most heroic troops in the world, and that, until both machine-gun nests and wire entanglements had been completely destroyed by a preliminary bombardment, attempts to advance were useless. And finally they recognized the fact that this unlimited supply of high explosive shells, so necessary to the success of their armies, depended absolutely on the organization of their industries at home. Britain was at last awake to the situation.

BATTLE OF FESTUBERT

Sir John French's seventh despatch, dated June 15th, 1915, describing the battle of Festubert, is in part as follows:

On the 15th of May I moved the Canadian Division into the First Corps area and placed them at the disposal of Sir Douglas Haig.

The infantry of the Indian Corps and the Second Division of the First Corps advanced to the attack of the enemy's trenches which extended from Richebourg L'Avoue in the southwesterly direction.

Before daybreak the Second Division had succeeded in capturing two lines of the enemy's trenches, but the Indian Corps was unable to make any progress owing to the strength of the enemy's defences in the neighbourhood of Richebourg L'Avoue.

At daybreak the Seventh Division, on the right of the Second, advanced to the attack, and by 7 A. M. had entrenched themselves on a line running nearly north and south, half-way between their original trenches and La Quinque Rue, having cleared and captured several lines of the enemy's trenches, including a number of fortified posts. . . .

Sir Douglas Haig placed the Canadian and Fifty-first Divisions, together with the artillery of the Second and Seventh Divisions, under the command of Lieutenant-General Alderson, whom he directed to conduct the operations which had hitherto been carried on by the general officer commanding First Corps; and he directed the Seventh Division to remain in army reserve.

During the night of the 19th–20th a small post of the enemy in front of La Quinque Rue was captured.

During the night of the 20th–21st the Canadian Division brilliantly carried on the excellent progress made by the Seventh Division by seizing several of the enemy's trenches and pushing forward their whole line several hundred yards. A number of prisoners and some machine guns were captured.

On the 22d instant the Fifty-first (Highland) Division was attached to the Indian Corps, and the general officer commanding the Indian Corps took charge of the operations at La Quinque Rue, Lieutenant-General Alderson with the Canadians conducting the operations to the south of that place.

On this day the Canadian Division extended their line slightly to the right and repulsed three very severe hostile counter-attacks.

On the 24th and 25th of May the Forty-seventh Division (Second London Territorial) succeeded in taking some more of the enemy's trenches and making good the ground to the east and north.

I had now reason to consider that the battle, which was commenced by the First Army on the 9th of May and renewed on the 16th, having attained for the moment the immediate object I had in view, should not be further actively proceeded with; and I gave orders to Sir Douglas Haig to curtail his artillery attack and to strengthen and consolidate the ground he had won.

In the battle of Festubert above described the enemy was driven from a position which was strongly entrenched and fortified, and ground was won on a front of four miles to an average depth of 600 yards.

The enemy is known to have suffered very heavy losses, and in the course of the battle 785 prisoners and ten machine guns were captured. A number of machine guns were also destroyed by our fire.

During the period under report the army under my command has taken over trenches occupied by some other French divisions.

I am much indebted to General D'Urbal, commanding the Tenth French Army, for the valuable and efficient support received throughout the battle of Festubert from three groups of French millimetre guns.

In spite of very unfavourable weather conditions, rendering observation most difficult, our own artillery did excellent work throughout the battle.

The following congratulatory message came from the field marshal, commanding-in-chief, to the general officer commanding the First Army:

I thank you for the results obtained by First Army from May 16th to date. Please convey my congratulations to the Canadians.

THE SITUATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Of all the great powers Great Britain was the least organized for war. Her historical and geographical position had given her certain fixed beliefs and a form of Government which made new departures almost impossible even in a crisis.

Her Allies on the continent looked to the British Empire to ultimately supply the multitude of trained reserves and the guns and material that would finally turn the balance.

By June, 1915, the average Briton was wide awake and inclined to be impatient. The adoption of a scheme, national service, which had been put forward, was much opposed because of the excellent response which had been received to Lord Kitchener's appeal for recruits. The fact that voluntary recruiting was unscientific, unfair and costly did not enter into the consideration of the nation as a whole. National service implied that every citizen was at the disposal of the state, and also that every factory, workshop and individual in Great Britain used for the production of war materials might be as important in the final result as the men fighting in the trenches overseas. National service also involved the sacrifice of freedom of action and the temporary yielding by trade unions of rules and regulations which had been gained only through half a century continuous of struggle.

Great Britain opposed the "mailed fist" of Germany on land in 1914 with practically an ungloved hand. Ten months after war started it dawned upon the authorities at home that their armies were trying to fight against Germany's high explosives with shrapnel; that they were trying to oppose machinery with men.

On June 3d Mr. Lloyd George, Minister of Munitions, in a speech at Manchester frankly told the nation the truth. He spoke of the setback of the Russians in Galicia as due, not to superiority of the German soldiers or German generals, but solely due to German superiority of munitions. Applying the moral to the western front he pointed out that a similar superiority on the part of the Allies might have enabled them to drive the Germans out of France and Belgium. He declared that Germany owed this victory to the organization of her workshops and it was in the workshops of Great Britain that they must also look for success. He suggested that in the industrial field compulsion might be a necessity, for the country had not, as yet, brought one-half of its industrial strength to bear on the problem of winning the war. In that speech by appealing to the spirit of equality, of sacrifice, of service to the empire, and showing that the increased production of shells meant a corresponding reduction in the lives of soldiers sacrificed, Lloyd George stimulated the whole nation to a great new effort. This was the turning point in the war, for Britain set to work to beat Germany at her own game—to out-Krupp Krupps—and she succeeded.

On June 29th a bill for a national register was passed, framed to include all persons, male or female, between the ages of fifteen and sixty-five. On June 9th a munitions department, with Mr. Lloyd George at its head, was formed. The problem which he had to face was a tremendous one. When it came to improvising military stores England found her machinery most inefficient and scanty. Since private industries had not been organized with a view to adaptability the business of increasing production pr ved lamentably slow. There was a universal shortage of machine tools and there was great competition for labour.

The Munitions Act passed July 2d was designed to put the whole industrial system on a war basis. Arbitration was made compulsory in all trade disputes, strikes and lockouts were forbidden unless a month had elapsed without the Board of Trade taking action.

The Minister of Munitions could declare any work a controlled establishment. Employers' profits were limited, the owner being permitted to take out of the gross profits the net profits plus one-fifth, the rest to go to the state. Trade union rules and all rules practised and customs not having force of law were to be suspended

if they tended to restrict production and employment. Wages were not to be affected by the introduction of semi-skilled or female labour. No changes in labour were to be made without the consent of the minister or a tribunal and finally the minister was empowered to make special regulations to which all employees in a controlled establishment must submit.

The country was divided into ten munition areas and skilled workmen were brought from the front and the new armies training at home. In spite of difficulties, including the strike of the South Wales miners, progress was made and the nation as a whole settled down to the business of manufacturing military supplies on a prodigious scale.

Many stupid mistakes were made by the British Government. The volunteer who risked his life was paid one shilling a day; the motor drivers for the mechanical transport were paid six shillings a day, and the job was a safe one. The allowances for wives of the different classes of soldier varied, while the voluntary system of recruiting attracted men with large families which had to be paid large allowances.

The war had been carried on from the beginning on a most extravagant scale and already financiers and business men recognized that the expenditure could not go on indefinitely without some large increase in the national income.

Hence rose the campaign for universal thrift in every detail in the private life of the citizens.

The problem of increasing the national income was faced with courage and sense. Loans had to come out of the savings of the people because the market for foreign loans no longer existed.

On November 1, 1914, the first national loan realized £350,000,000 and in June, 1915, nearly £600,000,000 was raised by the second loan.

In the domain of private effort the work of the British was marvellous. The British Red Cross Society, the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and the Voluntary Aid Detachment provided nursing organizations without parallel. Private hospitals were sent to Serbia; nurses and ambulances went to the French, Russian and Belgian fronts. The civilian populations of France and Belgium were looked after by other organizations, while hundreds of thousands of Belgian refugees were absorbed into the social fabric of

Great Britain. Food supplies were sent to Belgium and huge sums raised for the relief of distress in Poland, Belgium, France, Serbia and other fields. Other organizations provided the luxuries and comforts for the troops, a feature that was greatly appreciated by the soldiers in the field. As men were absorbed into the army system their places were taken by women, who filled the positions of car conductors, chauffeurs, postmen, ticket collectors and so forth. The women's movement in England had given a large class special organization and discipline. The leaders of the movement did much to rouse the nation through the press and the platform and none were more vigorous in their denunciations of slackness and talk of peace. The women of Britain saw only the opportunity for service, and, when the munitions difficulty revealed itself, they were quick to come forward. It was the women of Great Britain working at home no less than their men in the front-line trenches which made ultimate victory possible.

In March the British Government declared a blockade not exactly in accord with the accepted principles of international law. It called for the seizure and confiscation of non-contraband goods of German ownership, origin or destination, carried by neutral ships to neutral ports. As a result America's cotton export was seriously affected by the British policy and she pressed her claims with much force. Though much feeling was aroused, particularly in the southern states, the goodwill of the majority of American people and the anxiety of ministers in the United States and Great Britain to reach an agreement prevented a crisis.

CHAPTER XV

Fighting on Many Fronts

In September, 1915, the German army on the western front consisted of 2,000,000 men. The 570 miles of front was held lightly at some points and heavily at others, depending on the nature of the ground. On the western front great changes had taken place in the Franco-British line. Thirty additional miles had been taken over by the British to the south, the Tenth French army being placed between the new Third British army under Sir Charles Munro and the First British army under Sir Douglas Haig. The British armies now consisted of 1,000,000 men under Sir John French and the French army contained approximately 2,000,000 men.

The unexpected increase in the British supply of munitions and the arrival of the new British divisions made it possible for an offensive which would have been deferred until spring. An offensive would relieve the pressure on the Russians in the east, embarrass the enemy and wear down his man-power.

The Champagne region was chosen as the main theatre for attack, while more or less serious minor attacks were to be made as far north as Ypres. The Champagne, with its rolling chalk downs, was particularly suited for artillery and infantry attacks, as well as for aerial reconnaissance on a great scale.

Early in September a general bombardment began along the whole allied front, but was particularly violent in Champagne, Lorraine, in the Artois and around Ypres.

The sound along the front in those September days was like the continuous roll of thunder interspersed with the crash and roar of nearby thunderstorms as the local groups of artillery loosened up in special "shoots." One afternoon the writer dropped into the headquarters of the officer commanding a group of heavies. The batteries were in a pleasant orchard probably three miles from the German line, a place so secluded that no German aeroplane had ever succeeded in locating them. At the moment the guns in

the orchard were crashing rhythmically, and in answer to my interested inquiry I was shown on a large scale map the objective of the moment. It was the station at Lille, ten miles away and six miles beyond the German line. That was typical of what was happening along hundreds of miles of front.

Every day there were numerous aerial battles in which the Allies were almost invariably successful, while numerous bombing raids carried on far back of the German lines did great damage to railway centres, ammunition dumps and hangars.

On September 23d thousands of guns let loose in an intensive bombardment which methodically destroyed the first and second German lines. The sky at night flickered like summer lightning pierced by giant flashes, while the gun fire at a distance sounded like the roll of enormous drums. At 9.15 on September 25th the French cleared their parapets in the Champagne in the long looked for offensive. The German lines there were exceedingly strong; the complicated trenches laced with wire, contained huge dugouts, deep underground, reinforced with timber and steel; machine guns were placed in concrete and steel casements while hundreds of miles of light railways made communication at the rear simple. Preceded by a barrage from the famous 75's the sky-blue-clad line of French infantry swept over the churned-up chalk and captured the first line. The guns followed close after and fired from the open, while cavalry was sent through to clean up Germans before they could reach the second position.

By nightfall the French had carried the German lines on a front of fifteen miles to an average depth of two and a half miles. The struggle continued until September 19th with the French still pushing forward. On that date another great offensive took place and the final line was breached for the length of half a mile, but the space was too narrow to attempt to pour through, the German guns came up behind it and the space was plugged.

The battle of the Champagne was a strategic move in the nature of a straight frontal attack. A little luck would have carried the French clear through the German front but, as almost always, luck did not favor the Allies.

Subsidiary to the great effort in Champagne was the attack launched between Vimy and Loos on September 25th. The French army under D'Urbal attacked the Vimy Heights and

the British army under Haig attacked the La Bassée-Loos front. In addition four other attacks were carried out by the British, at Givenchy, Neuve Chapelle, Bois Grenier, and near Ypres, for the purpose of pinning down the Germans on their respective fronts. The two main attacks at Vimy and Loos had the same object of isolating the railway junction of Lens and opening the road into the Scheldt plains.

D'Urbal attacked with an army of seventeen divisions and made some advance the first day after hard fighting. On the second day they were remarkably successful, winning the lower slopes of Vimy and crossing the Souchez River carried Souchez village. On September 29th, in spite of the re-enforcing of the German line, with three corps the French had won the Heights of Vimy.

To the north the four British attacks succeeded in their purpose of preventing the despatch of re-enforcements southward and inflicting heavy casualties.

The main British attack was in a mining region, with collieries, slag-heaps and an open country free from trees and covered with grass. The position was remarkable for its strength, and the Germans were justly confident in being able to resist any attack in that area. All that science and skill could do to re-enforce natural defensive features of the landscape had been done. Nevertheless the British division, among which were the well-proved First Seventh, Forty-seventh and two new Scottish divisions, the Ninth and Fifteenth, swept forward with a dash that proved irresistible. French gunners were amazed at the beginning of this battle to see the Eighteenth London Irish kick off a football from the parapet and dribble it a thousand yards across to the first German line. Loos, two miles behind, was taken by the Highlanders, who swept up the slopes beyond it and over the top to the Cité Ste. Auguste beyond the last German position. The German line had actually been broken clean through by one heroic Highland brigade which had advanced four miles in three hours. So clean cut was the break that the Germans began to get away their heavy guns and the fate of Lille for a short time trembled in the balance.

Unfortunately the only troops available to push through and take advantage of the situation were two new divisions. The writer had watched one of the divisions passing through the

village of Merville the day before. They had had no experience in fighting and had not been turned over by Sir John French to Haig for preliminary training in trench warfare. When the Highlanders had broken through the German lines at the Cité Ste. Auguste these two reserve divisions were eight miles away. When they marched into the battlefield, with cookers and water carts, they were heavily shelled. Under the strain they gave way and most of the brigades had to be taken out of the line.

The Fifteenth Highland division, composed of men who had been civilians of all types one year before, came out of the battle with 6,000 casualties and a reputation for fighting that had never excelled. Other divisions, composed perhaps of equally good raw material but deficiently trained, lost what the others had gained. It was a bitter lesson and resulted in criticism which eventually led to the retirement of Sir John French and the re-organization of the headquarter's staff under Sir Douglas Haig.

There was great elation among the British wounded during the battle of Loos. The writer saw the first batch of wounded come in singing and wearing German helmets—as happy as a lot of sandboys. The British soldier felt that at last he had the guns and shells which would give him an even chance with the enemy. Granted this he felt that he could accomplish the rest.

The net result of the battle of Loos was that we carried the first line on a front of 6,500 yards, broke up his reserve positions, and at one point actually broke clean through. Three thousand prisoners were taken as well as twenty-six field guns. Altogether it was the most substantial victory to the credit of the British up to that time and greatly encouraged the army as indicating what could be done and would be accomplished in the future. Nevertheless it dampened the national ardour at home and was responsible for a further tightening of the national jaw and a determination to see the thing through.

GALLIPOLI

The failure of the great naval attack on the Dardanelles of March 18th made the authorities realize that a land force was absolutely necessary to seize the forts and make the passage of the fleet possible.

A combined contingent was therefore gathered up of French

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THE ALLIED FLEET OPERATING AGAINST THE DARDANELLES

A remarkable photograph taken from the French battleship *Bouvet* showing the fleet in battle formation just before the bombardment of the Dardanelles. There were forty-two vessels engaged of which eighteen are shown in the picture.

THE ILL-FATED DARDANELLES EXPEDITION

The encampment at Seddul Bahr as seen during the occupation of Gallipoli, from the bridge of the historic troopship *River Clyde.*

and British troops. The French were under General D'Amade and the British under General Sir Ian Hamilton. M. Venizelos had failed to carry through his policy of intervention, and hopes of aid from Greece did not materialize.

Sir Ian Hamilton was not only a brilliant staff officer, a gallant soldier and an efficient administrator, but a man of wide culture, an accomplished writer and a poet.

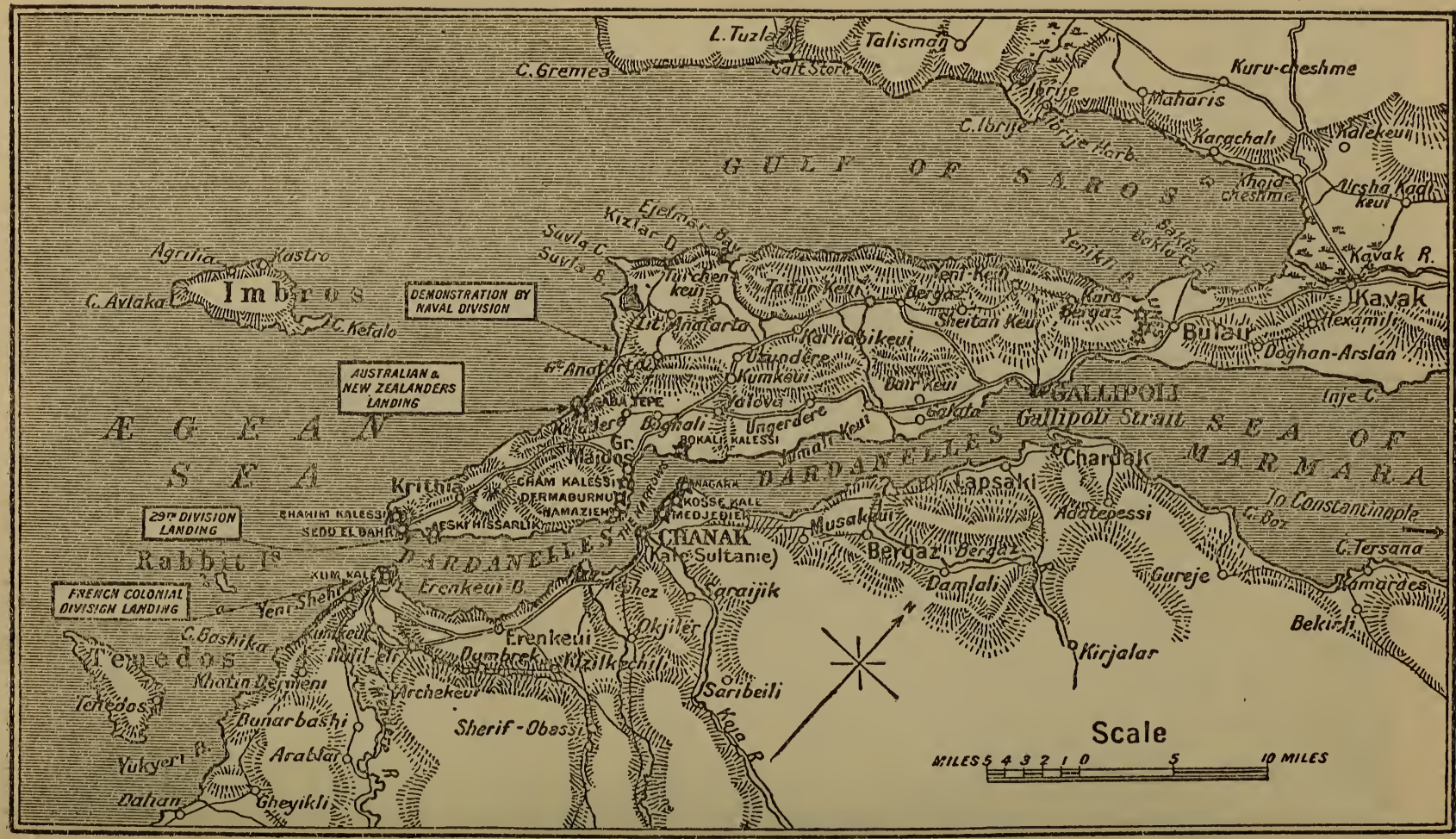
The allied strength of 120,000 men did not include any troops who had been definitely relied upon for the western front.

It is difficult to see how any commander could hope to force a position of such natural difficulty as Gallipoli in the face of an enemy amply supplied with guns and with superior forces. It was therefore logical to assume that 120,000 men would not be sufficient and that troops marked for the western front would later have to be called upon. It was impossible to surprise the enemy in Gallipoli because of the nature of the peninsula. To master Gallipoli meant an assault from the Ægean Sea upon shallow beaches and through gaps in the screen of yellow cliffs. These beaches were few and were situated mostly around Sedd-el-Bahr, Cape Helas and Gabatepe.

The immediate problem of Sir Ian Hamilton was simple enough and meant that a landing must be effected at the apex of the peninsula and at Gabatepe.

The force first landed must fight its way to Krithea while the second force would advance from Gabatepe against the pass leading to Mardos. If the left wing of the first army could then unite with the right wing of the second they might force the Pasha Daja-da-Plateau; in such case the battle would be won, because artillery could be brought to the plateau which would make the European forts untenable. The enemy's positions on the Asiatic side would also be dominated at short range and a combined attack by land and sea would give us the narrows of the Dardanelles.

The attack on Gallipoli was complicated and is difficult to describe. The Australians landed at Gabatepe at a series of beaches at the end of the peninsula. All of the landings took place under most extraordinary conditions, the shores were dominated by machine guns and riflemen upon the cliffs, while artillery swept the attacking forces. Most of the troops were embarked in boats



SCENE OF THE ANZACS' HEROIC EXPLOIT

In the attempt to pierce the Dardanelles the Australians and New Zealanders forced a landing on the Gallipoli peninsula hoping to win their way through to the Sea of Marmora but the loss of life was too heavy and they were withdrawn.

well out at sea and towed inshore by steam pinnaces while others attempted to land from colliers protected with steel. Most of these expeditions came under terrific fire and suffered heavily before landing. Many were drowned and killed by rifle and machine-gun bullets before landing, while, after they had actually reached the beaches, they were subjected to the fire of snipers and machine guns which rained death upon them.

Out at sea the great warships delivered their heavy shells against the Turkish lines, while seaplanes above directed the fire. Royal engineers in the face of almost insuperable difficulties cut roads up the rugged cliffs over which supplies were carried to the men who had worked their way to the top. All the ammunition, water and food had to be dragged up these cliffs. At one beach troops were forced to take cover under the edge of the cliff for two days until repeated attacks had cleared the surrounding area of the enemy.

Our losses were extremely heavy but positions on the top of the cliffs were finally won at all points attacked.

After having become established an attack was made upon the Turkish lines with the main objective of Krithea village, but little ground was gained, the attack failed and the allied attacking force was compelled to fall back.

It was a fight without precedent—60,000 men backed by the most powerful navy in the world attacking a shore seemingly impregnable and held by twice the number of Turks established in positions prepared for months and supported by modern artillery. Every rule of war was set at defiance. The problem of transport was sufficient to deter the boldest. The enemy, a gallant fighter, was at his best in this type of battle and he fought with courage and chivalry as our records showed.

The attack on Gallipoli will always be recognized as a mighty feat of arms.

In taking a bird's-eye view of operations in Europe at the time, we see the French and British lines successfully holding the Germans on the western front; though both sides had endeavoured to break the line, neither had succeeded, and with the great German attempt to break through at Ypres at the end of April the Germans had temporarily abandoned the idea of piercing the allied line in France and Flanders. Germany depended on her great superiority

in guns and her ability to hold the Franco-British troops at long range with them while she devoted her attention to disabling the Russian army in the east. The Russian army as we have seen was steadily falling back before the superior weight of men, but particularly of guns and shells.

England had not yet organized her industries to manufacture shells on a large scale, though France had done so and was turning out a supply several times greater than at the beginning of the war. America and Japan were supplying considerable quantities, both of shells and material, and on these supplies Russia was depending. Russia's own facilities for manufacturing guns and shells were limited but she was feverishly working to correct her failure.

Outside supplies, unfortunately for Russia, had to be brought in through the port of Archangel in the Arctic Ocean or across the single Trans-Siberian line from the Pacific coast. Her other great sea highway was closed by the Turkish army occupying Gallipoli and sealing up the Dardenelles. Consequently it was quite clear that the opening up of this passage would mean immense relief to Russia and the struggle at Gallipoli was of vital interest.

General Von Sanders, the Turkish commander-in-chief, had 200,000 men and plenty of artillery at the base of the Gallipoli Peninsula. To feed his troops it was necessary to carry supplies through the Sea of Marmora to the ports of Gallipoli and Mados. If this water transport could be interfered with he would be compelled to carry his supplies and reserves along the Asiatic coast to Chanak, a route that was practicable but circuitous. The Allies endeavoured to make the Sea of Marmora impossible. After a preliminary attempt by an Australian submarine which was sunk on April 30th, Lieutenant-Colonel Boyle, V.C., succeeded in diving under the mine fields and entering the Sea of Marmora, where he operated brilliantly for a few days. He managed to sink two Turkish gunboats and one large transport of troops. A few days later Lieutenant-Commander Eric Nasmith also entered the Sea of Marmora and played havoc with the communications and shipping. The results accomplished by them were very satisfactory because the Turks no longer regarded the Sea of Marmora as safe, no longer travelled through it and in consequence

their lines of communication were dislocated and delays of great value to the Allies occurred.

The following account of Nasmith's exploits is worth reproducing as one of the most extraordinary feats performed during the whole war:

The submarine *E 11*, in command of Lieutenant-Commander M. E. Nasmith (V.C., D.S.O.) proceeded up the Straits of the Dardanelles accompanied as usual on the surface by hostile destroyers. Her wireless went wrong and she was left deaf and dumb in the middle of the Sea of Marmora, trying to fix up her aerial apparatus in the intervals between dives to avoid hostile craft.

Proceeding towards Constantinople she sank a Turkish torpedo boat near that port and had her periscope smashed by a six-pound shell. After fitting on a new periscope, fixing her wireless and getting in touch with the authorities, she ran across a small steamer off Rodosto and halted her with rifle fire. Being full of ammunition and guns the crew was allowed to get away in the boats and a demolition charge sent the ship to the bottom. *E 11* then chased another heavy laden steamer into Rodosto and torpedoed her as she tied up to the dock. She then drove a paddle-wheel steamer loaded with barbed wire on to the beach. As *E 11* proceeded to destroy it she was hotly fired upon by a party of horsemen who appeared on the cliffs above. A torpedo missed the beached steamer and *E 11*, after recharging her batteries, proceeded slowly towards Constantinople.

Next day she dived unobserved into the Constantinople harbour, greatly hampered by cross tides, mud and currents. After discharging two torpedoes which scared up the whole sea front and made the district exceedingly unhealthy, she dived, grounded heavily, bounced up thirty feet, was headed down again and found herself resting on the bottom and slowly revolving. The officers concluded that they were resting on the shoal under the Leander Tower, corrected her and once more made the centre of the Sea of Marmora.

Wherever they boarded a craft and found nothing of consequence they "parted with many expressions of good will." In between times they used the middle of the Sea of Marmora as a base and there bathed and did all their laundry work.

In the course of time, having done the maximum possible amount of damage, *E 11* proceeded homeward, being nearly cut down by a steamer en route. In passing through the Straits she observed a Turkish troop ship at anchor but reserved her torpedoes for a possible battleship. Not finding any of these she returned and torpedoed the troopship. Having passed through the narrows she suddenly got out of trim and later on the officers heard a noise like grounding, but knowing they were in deep water, came up towards the surface to investigate. There Lieutenant-Commander Nasmith saw a large mine preceding the periscope by twenty feet, apparently hung to the port hydroplane by its moorings. A mine may weigh from two or three hundred to a thousand pounds and they sometimes explode if you think about them. *E 11* did not dare to come up to unhitch the mine on account of the shore batteries, so they pushed the thing ahead of them till they reached the open sea beyond Kum Kale. Then they went full speed astern and emptied the after tanks which brought the bows down. In this posture *E 11* rose to the surface where the rush of the water from the screws together with the speed astern unhooked the mine and let it fall away.

For these exploits Lieutenant-Commander Nasmith, D.S.O., was given the Victoria Cross.

This is merely an example of what was occurring in many branches of the service during the war. For everything that came to the knowledge of the public, there were a dozen others of which they heard nothing. It was the record of such tales as this which revealed unsuspected activities in the most unexpected places. The record of Nasmith as given above was paralleled by that of Commander E. Courteney Boyle, who also operated in the Sea of Marmora, and others. It will take volumes some day to record these exploits in detail.

On April 30th some Indian infantry and part of a naval division disembarked at Gallipoli in time to help repel an attack by the Turks which took place that same night.

In the counter-attacks the Turks were driven out and but for barbed wire and machine guns it was believed that Achi Baba would have been carried. A Territorial division arrived on May 5th and on May 6th the second battle of Krithea began and lasted three days. During this time the Turks were heavily shelled

by the warships, which literally peppered the Turkish positions with high explosives.

The situation was an extraordinary one; the Turkish trenches were not more than two hundred yards distant and the dead could be seen lying in hundreds. Through a periscope one observer observed that "There are groups of twenty or thirty massed together as if for mutual protection, some lying on their faces, some killed in the act of firing, others hung up on the barbed wire. In one place a small group actually reached our parapet and now lie dead on it, shot or bayonetted at point-blank range. Hundreds of others lie just outside their own trenches."

A third attempt upon Krithea and Achi Baba was made on June 4th and failed. The need for further re-enforcements became most urgent. Five weeks of constant fighting had not yet touched the outer Turkish position. The ground had been converted by German engineers into almost impregnable defences and the campaign had resolved itself into the kind in which progress can only be made by slow, laborious and costly frontal attacks in which the positions have to be won yard by yard.

To the 31st of May the British casualties in the Dardanelles had amounted to 38,636, which included those which occurred during the landing and the first two attempts on Achi Baba. The losses for the three years in the South African war amounted to 38,156.

Towards the end of May the appearance of German submarines, which sank the *Triumph* and *Majestic*, had compelled the withdrawal of the larger and more valuable British vessels like the *Queen Elizabeth*, which returned to England, leaving only a few of the older battleships and a number of cruisers and monitors. It was at this period in the Gallipoli struggle and when the German submarines had succeeded in driving away some of our finest vessels that Italy entered the arena taking her place with the Allies on May 23d.

The position attacked by our troops in Gallipoli was one of the strongest natural positions in the world. Sir Ian Hamilton said of it: "The country is broken, mountainous, arid and void of supplies, the water found in the areas occupied by our forces is quite inadequate for their needs, the only practicable beaches are small cramped breaks in impracticable lines of cliffs. With

the wind in certain quarters no sort of landing is possible. The wastage by bombardment and wreckage of lighters and small craft has led to crisis after crisis in our carrying capacity, whilst over every single beach plays fitfully throughout each day a devastating shell fire at medium ranges."

The Turk was no mean fighter and aided by German military skill and science he was holding the road to his sacred capital against the enemy. His numbers were greater than ours and he had every advantage of ground, weapons and preparation.

We had chosen to attack the Turk in his strongest fortress; he had every possible advantage. It seemed at the time like the shortest way to accomplish our purpose, but it looked as though the scheme had been carried out in ignorance of the actual facts and conditions which were known to scores of Englishmen who had lived and studied in the East.

There were other possible avenues to Constantinople, through Thraice or along the southern shores of the Sea of Marmora, both of which were less difficult than the Gallipoli route because by these other routes the Allies could have advanced on a broad front and fought a campaign of open warfare. Success in either would have automatically cut off the supplies of Gallipoli and led to its fall and the opening of the Dardanelles.

All through June the Turks made frequent attacks on our line but on June 21st the Allies began straightening out their front. Severe fighting occurred involving heavy loss of life but the Allies were successful in their attempt. The Turks are estimated to have lost 5,000 killed and 15,000 wounded during this period.

The conditions in Gallipoli during the hot summer months were indescribable. The air shimmered with heat from the sun-baked soil; stagnant pools of green water bred countless swarms of mosquitoes; there was an indescribable odor of dead bodies everywhere, and clouds of flies, hovering about, covered everything, spread disease and worried the soldiers almost beyond endurance. Nevertheless the spirits of the men and their cheerfulness were beyond description. Khaki knee breeches, a shirt and a sun helmet gradually became the accepted apparel of both men and officers. The Australians particularly fought and worked almost naked in the dusts of the trenches and only when the hour

of relief came was it possible for them to get to the shore and bathe in the Ægean Sea.

Facilities were not available for taking baths, destroying garbage or washing. even if the water had been available for the purpose, and men were unable to keep down lice except by the ancient and honourable method of handpicking. The result was that disease was rife in the peninsula and was responsible to a large extent for casualties in the Expeditionary forces. The fighting in July consisted mainly of sporadic Turkish counter-attacks, and small gains were made only after heavy bombardments and great expenditure of life.

On July 12th the Allies made a determined effort to take the Krithea position. A considerable advance was made which brought Krithea very close but the heights of Achi Baba still remained far out of reach.

The three summer months had been most costly. Six British divisions by the end of July had lost 50,000 men of whom 8,000 were killed, 30,000 wounded and 11,000 missing. The French losses were comparable to ours. Our troops had shown a dauntless courage and devotion which was unexcelled. Little had been gained as a result of this huge wastage, and by the end of July the stalemate which had resulted compelled a revision of our strategy.

NEW LANDING AT GALLIPOLI

Preparations for a final attempt against the Gallipoli position were complete by the end of July. Six new divisions had been despatched to Sir Ian Hamilton for the effort. A new type of monitor, somewhat like a floating gun platform, of shallow draught and immune from torpedoes, arrived on the scene to replace British and French battleships.

The new plan of offensive involved four operations. A feint was to be made on the Balair lines in the Gulf of Saros; an offensive was to be made against Achi Baba from Cape Helles; the Anzac corps was to advance and gain the heights and a great new landing was to be made at Suvla Bay.

The plan, bold in conception, would, if successful, cut the Turkish lines of communication and enable the Turkish forts to be attacked from two directions. Its success depended entirely

on the success of each attacking force. Failure of any one would jeopardize the whole plan. The weakest part of the plan was the fact that three new untried divisions were to be used.

The attack of the Australians on the Lone Pine trenches was made with irresistible fury. Their objective was gained, and they hung on to the captured trenches with a stubbornness which was remarkable. Five thousand Turks killed and seven Victoria Crosses testify to the heroic nature of that combat. Attacks made on other sectors amid terrific heat, lack of water, clouds of dust, smoke and insects were too complicated to describe in detail. Had the Suvla Bay venture proved a success, the central ridge of the peninsula would have been taken and the Anzac successes consolidated. But the force under General Stopford failed to take the Anafarta Hills, the Turks counter-attacked and the enterprise was again doomed to failure.

After ten days a wonderful frontal attack was made by the renowned Twenty-ninth division. It succeeded to an extent, but failed in taking its final objective.

Nothing material was gained in the August offensive and we were no nearer gaining a decision. The new line, lengthened by six miles and advanced at one point by a mile, was no easier to hold and commanded no part of the enemy communications. In three weeks the British casualties had been 40,000, of which 30,000 had been sustained between August 6th and August 10th. The general plan was bold and practicable. It failed, owing to mistakes in detail, largely because raw troops had been used at a vital point and because there had been a lack of skill and resolution in handling those raw troops. The heroic actions of the Australians, New Zealanders and Indians had been negatived by these failures.

THE WAR IN MESOPOTAMIA

Little except the name of Mesopotamia is known to most people, and the campaign conducted there against the Turks was the least known of all the campaigns. Yet it had the great strategic purpose of defending India. Germany believed that a blow struck at India would help to paralyze our effort in Europe. Primarily she coveted Mesopotamia which is potentially one of the most fertile countries in the world and had been, under ancient

irrigation methods, rich beyond compare. She coveted the opportunities which Great Britain possessed in the East and she determined to divert into her own coffers some of the wealth to be gathered through eastern trade. Accordingly she built the Bagdad railway, developed trading schemes along the Persian Gulf and tried to stir up the Indian tribes and Arabs against the British.

The primary object of the Mesopotamia expedition was to keep the enemy from the shores of the Gulf and shut him off from India. On November 13, 1914, Basra, the port of Bagdad, was taken and the British Force entrenched itself upon the Tigris River. The Turks attacked us without success and it was then decided to take Bagdad, some three hundred miles further up the river, and by capturing that sacred City of Islam deal a heavy blow at Turkish prestige.

The River Tigris is the sole means of communication between Bagdad and the sea. The flat plains on either bank are intersected with swamps and dry cuttings. The population is Arab, semi-nomadic, treacherous and without loyalty to any country.

On May 31st the British force dispersed a Turkish concentration at Kurna, and on June 3d captured Amara, seventy-five miles from Kurna. The remainder of the Turkish forces withdrew to Kut-el-Amara, one hundred and fifty miles farther up the Tigris. With the capture of that point it was believed the port of Basra would be safe, and in early August General Townshend's division was despatched up the Tigris. On September 25th General Townshend came in touch with the enemy at Kut-el-Amara and on September 29th had, with less than 500 casualties, captured the position together with one quarter of the Turkish forces. The operation was brilliantly conceived and executed, and the British force had arrived within one hundred miles of Bagdad. The campaign in Mesopotamia had assumed great importance for it became suddenly linked up with the menace in the Balkans, and the revelation of German strategy which threatened the Near East and India.

Sir John Nixon and the Indian authorities now decided upon pushing on to Bagdad in spite of the protest of General Townshend who realized that with only 15,000 weary troops, one-third only of whom were white, he was entering upon a dangerous adventure.

In early October General Townshend began his advance and

after routing a Turkish force of 4,000 at Azizie reached the ruined city of Ctesiphon. There he found 20,000 Turks strongly entrenched and drove them out of their first line. The Turks counter-attacked and were driven back time after time but the British were unable to advance and, after losing one-third of their forces, fell back to Kut where they were surrounded by the Turks.

THE RUSSIAN FRONT

By August 21st the German army had taken the forts of Warsaw, Ivangorod, Novo Georgievsk, Kovno and Grodno, but the Russian armies had still escaped destruction and the Germans had therefore failed in their objective. They had not succeeded by any signal victory to shake the confidence of the Allies. Early in September, after four terrible months of continuous battle the pressure against the Russians slackened perceptibly. The Riga-Kovno line was now straightened and retreat was available everywhere the Russians chose.

At this time the Grand Duke Nicholas was replaced by the Czar as commander-in-chief of the Russian army and the Grand Duke was sent to be Viceroy in the Caucasus. To the Russian people it was a sign that the war would be waged to a triumphant conclusion. It was an evidence to Germany that Russia had no intention of quitting the arena.

In September the Germans attacked the Russians at Vilna and, by crushing in their flanks, almost succeeded in trapping a large section of their army. But in spite of all their efforts the Russian army, fighting with extraordinary tenacity and skill, escaped once more. In the north Von Mackensen and Ermolli failed to win the Rovno and Sarny, and sustained 80,000 casualties in the attempt. The month of October had come and the German effort had still failed to achieve its aim.

Nevertheless, the effect of the retreat upon Russia had been most marked. Two million refugees pouring into the country made the Russian people realize what war really was. They had all to be provided for by the civilian population. When the Duma met in August, astonishing revelations as to German influences in Russia were made, particularly in regard to the control of the output of munitions. Unfortunately the Duma, the only assembly capable of expressing the popular will, became

controversial in character and was prorogued till November. The Czar summoned the leaders and persuaded them to drop controversial matters, and a new Duma was assembled—a popular chamber demanded by progressives and reactionaries alike.

ITALY ENTERS THE WAR

Italy had been a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austro-Hungary, the terms of which bound the nations to stand by each other in case of attack. When war broke out in 1914 Italy refused to throw in her lot with the Central Powers because they had been the aggressors, an opinion which was the verdict of the whole world. For many long years there had been a marked friendship between Italy and Great Britain. Realizing the danger to the Central Powers through Italy throwing in her lot with the Allies, Germany made every effort to keep her neutral. Even their tame socialists were sent to Italy to urge Italian socialists to keep the country out of the war. Italy's geographical position would have made it exceedingly difficult for her to enter war against France or England because her long coast line could be attacked with impunity by French and English navies. In view of this fact the Triple Alliance carried a proviso that Italy was not bound to fight England in case of war.

The alliance with Italy had been brought about by Bismarck who engineered the situation which resulted in the French seizing Tunis in 1882. This angered the Italians so much that they accepted a place in the Triple Alliance which would protect them from France and Austria. England at that time was in the position of "splendid isolation" and had no European alliances.

One result of the Triple Alliance was that Germany obtained a strong commercial and financial hold in Italy. Nevertheless Austria, her natural enemy though her ally, did everything possible to irritate Italy except actually declare war; and at last the arrogance of the two central powers became so great that the claims of their Italian ally in the Balkan peninsula were completely ignored. Italy's eyes were finally opened wide by the overt act of the Central Powers in seizing Bosnia and Herzegovina. In spite of their alliance no love had ever been lost between the Germans and the Italians.

After almost a year of negotiation, in which the Italian govern-

ment won on technical points alone, the road was open for Italy to declare war.

The country, during that period, had been flooded with German propaganda, newspapers had been subsidized and much German money spent in endeavouring to keep the country neutral, yet when the time came public opinion in Italy swept all before it and the nation by a vote of 470 to 74 decided upon war. Italy declared war upon Austria on May 23, 1915, though it was a year later before she declared war upon Germany.

The scene which took place at the rear of the Public Tribune when the Chamber was about to declare war was a memorable one. Gabriel D'Annunzio, the great Italian poet and writer, who had preached war with all his great oratorical powers throughout the country, was seized by the people and passed shoulder high over the crowds which jammed the space. The entire Chamber and those occupying the other Tribunes rose to their feet and applauded for several minutes crying "Viva D'Annunzio." Later on this great writer showed himself as a naval officer equally great in torpedoing Austrian battleships, or as an aviator leading air squadrons in battle line over Austrian territory.

During the period since the war first began in 1914, General Cadorna had been bringing the army up to date and piling up munitions.

In Italy every man was liable to a period of military service of nineteen years. At the time of the war the approximate strength of the army was 3,000,000, of which more than 1,200,000 were fully trained soldiers, and 800,000 were partially trained.

On the day that war was declared Austria struck the first blow by dropping bombs on Venice and bombarding the Adriatic ports. The Italian army invaded Austria with great rapidity advancing across the Isonzo River northwest of Trieste and towards Gorizia in the north.

On June 7th the general Italian advance took place on a front of forty miles but failed to capture Trieste, though they were within nine miles of it.

The Austrian front which up to that time had been defended chiefly with hastily mobilized troops was now re-enforced by some of the finest fighters from the Galician front and the Italian advance was stayed.

BULGARIA DECLARES WAR ON SERBIA

When Germany failed to crush the Russian army at Vilna she immediately entered upon a new campaign to maintain her prestige and sicken the Allies of the war. This time she chose to attack Serbia—a venture that promised an easy and rapid success. The army of invasion under the command of Mackensen was composed of Austrians re-enforced by some German regiments and the assistance of Bulgaria was counted on.

Bulgaria at the beginning of the war negotiated with the Allies in an effort to regain some of the territory lost in the second Balkan war. A large proportion of the Bulgars sympathized with Russia, but the German advance in Galicia and the Allies' failure in the Dardanelles prevented any concrete action in favor of the Allies. King Ferdinand of Saxe-Cobourg-Gotha was a German and one of the most cunning men in Europe. With his pro-German sympathies and numerous supporters he managed to keep Bulgaria free of any alliance with the Allies and to promote by every possible means the feeling that the Central Powers must inevitably win and that Bulgaria should therefore be on the winning side. In mid July a secret treaty was entered into with the Central Powers which, on October 5th, culminated in a declaration of war upon the Allies.

The Balkans region is inhabited by many races of fighting dispositions. The Bulgarians, Serbs, Rumanians, Turks and Greeks each have their own territories but these unfortunately do not always correspond to their nationalities. Each country contains within its boundaries large numbers of neighbouring peoples and from these sources rise bitternesses of which western peoples have no conception.

From the year 1466 to 1875 the Turks controlled the Balkans largely by pitting one race against the others and keeping them weakened. As the Turks themselves became weak the Balkan nations began to assert themselves and one by one broke away, forming independent kingdoms. Greece became independent in 1829; Serbia practically so in 1830; Rumania in 1859, while Bulgaria revolted in 1876. The atrocities then committed by the Turks in crushing the rebellion led to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877 and ultimately to the recent war.

The Russo-Turkish war was settled in 1878 by the treaty

of Berlin, which left every racial question unsettled and has resulted in a continuous series of quarrels in which each of the Balkan peoples has sought the support of one or other of the great powers. Bulgaria has been constantly the centre of intrigues with Austria and Russia, both of whom had the object of extending their own dominions towards Constantinople.

"Ferdinand the Fox," a man ambitious, ostentatious, most cunning and a personal coward, during his long reign gradually created a powerful kingdom of Bulgaria, which, in 1908, was recognized to be independent by Turkey. Though the Balkan States were perfectly aware of Austro-German ambitions to extend their power eastward, each of them was exceedingly jealous of the other. Their one common tie was a hatred of Turkey and in 1912 they formed a secret agreement, declared war on Turkey and decisively defeated her. The Triple Alliance refused to ratify the agreement made by the Balkan States that Serbia should obtain an outlet to the Adriatic Sea, and Bulgaria refused to compromise by giving her an outlet to the Ægean Sea. As a consequence, in July, 1913, Greece and Serbia attacked Bulgaria. Turkey took the opportunity to regain Adrianople, and Rumania, which had in the first Balkan war remained neutral, entered the field.

The Treaty of Bucharest was signed on August 10th after the surrender of Bulgaria. This left Bulgaria thoroughly disgruntled. She had suffered heavy losses in the war with Turkey in which she had been the leader and she had lost a fine port on the Black Sea. All the Balkan States in fact were seething with dissatisfaction, but Bulgaria particularly was in a condition where revenge would be sweet. When the war broke out in 1914 Greece, Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania were all strongly sympathetic with Russia who had always been ready to back them, while Bulgaria, whose growth to power had been altogether through Russia's protection, was now ready to seek an alliance with the Central Powers.

On October 3, 1915, an ultimatum was handed Bulgaria by Russia stating that unless Bulgaria sent away Austrian and German officers, ceased mobilizing her armies on the Serbian borders and openly broke with Russia's enemies, the Russian Minister had orders to leave Bulgaria with the staff of the Legation.

"THE LADIES FROM HELL" IN ACTION

From a sketch made near Hooge in July, 1915, where the Liverpool Scottish and other regiments counter-attacked after a German liquid-fire attack. The lads wi' the kilts were styled by the Boches "the Ladies from Hell."

"YOU'RE NEXT!"

A company of British soldiers "making a dash for it" across an opening in a long sand-bagged trench in France.

Similar ultimatums were delivered by Great Britain and France. Bulgaria issued a long manifesto to the nation stating her position, and written in typically insolent German style. In her reply to the Allies' ultimatum she stated that the presence of German officers in Bulgaria was Bulgaria's concern only.

Venizelos, the Greek Premier, seeing what was coming, had, on September 21st, asked the Allies for 150,000 troops, and the Allies agreeing, Greece began to mobilize on September 24th with the enthusiastic backing of the Greek Chamber. King Constantine of Greece, a brother-in-law of Kaiser Wilhelm, refused to support M. Venizelos in his policy and forced his resignation, much to the indignation of the Greeks. The king, who had a considerable amount of support, won out and the landing of the Allies at Salonika in October strengthened the opposition to the Venizelos policy. The Greeks under the new premier, M. Zaimis, assumed an attitude of armed neutrality. Seventy thousand French troops arrived at Salonika on October 3d, landing after a final protest of the Greek commandant, who did everything thereafter to facilitate the landing of the troops. In a short time the Allies had 150,000 troops at Salonika.

Events marched rapidly in the Balkans, and Serbia, with an army of 200,000 men, found herself attacked on three sides by 200,000 Austro-Germans and 250,000 Bulgarians.

The diplomacy of the Allies, as usual in any Balkan crisis, failed miserably. Refusing to take the advice of their own experts and their Allies, who knew what was coming, they dallied with the situation until matters had gone too far. Had they taken strong action early Bulgaria would never have gone in with the Central Powers and the co-operation of Greece and Rumania would probably have been secured.

As it was the allied army landed at Salonika was too weak, Greece remained neutral at the crucial moment, and Serbia found herself without the help promised by the allied powers. On September 19th Belgrade was bombarded and Mackensen's attempt to open up a road to Constantinople was in full sway. The Serbs fought with great valor but were hopelessly outnumbered.

The Serbian army, fighting magnificently, fell back and on November 8th had almost effected a junction with the allied forces advancing from Salonika. The advance of the allied army

under General Sarrail had been successful until the first week in November when, finding themselves opposed by 125,000 Bulgarians in a dangerous position, they were forced to fall back. The juncture with the Serbians as a consequence failed and the Serbian retreat developed into a rout.

On October 20th the Bulgarian and Austro-German armies formed a juncture in the Dobravado Mountains that enabled the Germans to announce that the road to the Orient through Austro-Hungary and Bulgaria had been opened.

The sufferings of the Serbian people at that time were indescribable. Much of the civilian population retreated with the army; the roads were strewn with starving, exhausted men; disease and famine, in regions destitute of shelter and among people exposed to the cold, played their deadly rôle, and when the remnant of the Serbian people reached a haven they were broken, exhausted and diseased beyond description.

Meanwhile a great political struggle was occurring in the Greek Chamber as to the position Greece should assume, and the Allies, fearing an attack from the rear, were compelled to adopt strong measures to keep Greece from becoming hostile.

CHAPTER XVI

Canadian Troops Prove Their Metal

At the time of the second battle of Ypres the second Canadian division was crossing the Atlantic. Of the first contingent of 33,000 men five battalions, the Sixth, Ninth, Eleventh, Twelfth and Seventeenth had been left in England to act as the nucleus of a drafting and training division.

In the first week of October, 1914, just after the first contingent had sailed for Europe, Canada had offered a Second division of 20,000 men which had been accepted by the Imperial Government. Recruiting for this had begun at once, each battalion being raised as a separate unit for the purposes of enlistment and training. Mobilization of the Fourth brigade was commenced in October, 1914. The regiments of the Fifth brigade began mobilizing at the end of October. This brigade was placed under the command of Brigadier-General Watson.

The First division had started from Gaspé Harbour in Quebec as a single great convoy under the escort of an Atlantic squadron. The Second division left in single ships without any of the picturesque features associated with the first armada. Nothing unusual occurred to any of the transports carrying the Second division and all arrived safely in England. The transportation, which began in April, was largely completed by May though the last troops arrived only in August. The Second division was actually constituted on May 24, 1915, under the command of Major-General Steele, C. B., M. V. O.

TRAINING THE SECOND CANADIAN DIVISION

The Second division was fortunate in comparison with the First division in that it underwent its course of training during an English summer in the charming country about Shornecliffe.

The contrast of these battalions tramping through the green Kentish lanes in summer under a pleasant summer sky with that of battalions of the first Canadians tramping over dreary, rain

soaked downs or through roads many inches deep in mud, under skies which alternately showered water, sleet and snow, and where high winds of the most biting character found one's very marrow, was very marked.

The Second division after undergoing its normal course of training was visited by His Majesty the King, accompanied by Lord Kitchener, on September 2, 1915. Like the review of the First division, that of the Second also took place before the British sovereign under a grey and gloomy sky. On September 14, 1915, under the command of Major-General Turner, V.C., the Second division passed over to France. Major General Steele remained in command of the troops in the Shornecliffe area.

The Second division crossed the narrow channel at Boulogne and shortly afterwards joined the First Canadian division at Ploegsteert Woods.

One particularly interesting incident was the recognition by the French people of the Twenty-second battalion, which had been entirely recruited from the French-Canadians in Quebec. The French, who seemed to know little about French Canada, were astonished to learn that there were more than 2,000,000 French-Canadians in the Province of Quebec and repeatedly asked why they had not come over to fight in the cause of their old Mother Country. Explanations were too involved and difficult for one not over fluent in the French language. It was therefore a matter of relief to Canadians and a satisfaction to the French people when more than a thousand soldiers speaking the same language as themselves landed on their shores. It was a curious rendezvous of peoples descended originally from the same stock, but who for centuries had had no communion with one another.

The Canadian corps was immediately formed upon the arrival of the Second Canadian division under the command of General Alderson who had formerly commanded the First division. The First division thereupon went to Major-General Currie whose brigade was taken over by Brigadier-General Lipsett. The Second Canadian division as we have seen was already in command of Major-General Turner and his brigade, the Third, was taken over by Brigadier-General Leckie. The Second division relieved the Twenty-eighth British division on the sector which stretched northward from the line occupied by the First Canadian division.

At this time the Anglo-French army made a great offensive. The greatest effort of the French took place in the Champagne, and the British made their most serious attempt in the vicinity of Loos near La Bassée.

When an offensive took place on any part of the line it was essential for the rest of the troops to make a series of holding attacks for the purpose of keeping the enemy on the *qui vive* and preventing him from despatching reserves to the real point of danger. The first experience of the Second Canadian division was to take part in a gigantic bluff attack; on September 24th, the day after they had finally taken over their sector, the artillery opened up and cut great gaps in the enemy's wire as if to open a road for our attacking columns. Early in the morning sacks full of wet straw were set on fire so that the smoke formed was carried towards the enemy; at that moment, for the first time, real gas was being employed by the British near Lens and the Hohenzollern redoubt. At the same time the Canadian commanding officers issued orders, blew whistles and carried on all the movements to be expected before a real attack. As a result the Germans filled their front line trenches with troops ready to repel our attack at which opportune moment the Canadian gunners heavily shelled the enemy trenches and caused a considerable number of casualties.

Up to the end of October there is nothing of importance to record on the Canadian front. Most of the time was spent in perfecting and improving the trench systems.

The Canadians developed a marked aptitude for scouting in No Man's Land and after a few preliminary encounters remained in almost undisputed possession. This kind of work, however, was made dangerous by the enemy employing land mines and booby traps which would explode on touching a wire and blow the scouting soldier or raiding party to pieces.

At the end of October the rainy season began and the labour of weeks in preparing trenches was in many places destroyed in a few hours by the unrevetted clay walls collapsing like jelly. Communication trenches became impassable, parapets fell in, trenches filled with water and life to the soldier in the trenches became miserable beyond conception.

After some weeks, however, a drainage system for the trenches was devised, the bottoms of the trenches were covered with wooden

paths, perhaps two to three feet high in the worst places and the sides of the trenches were re-enforced with wire and wooden props.

The section known as "Plug Street" Woods seemed peculiarly familiar to men from Ontario for on first impression it reminded them of the old holiday grounds of Muskoka. It was possible to drive right into the Ploegsteert Woods by motor car and then, by walking up the hill through the woods, enter the Canadian trenches. In these woods numerous log houses had been built, resembling those of campers in Muskoka, while rustic fences, gates and trellis work completed the illusion that this was a section of one of Canada's summer playgrounds.

Winter in Flanders is a period of rain, mist and general dreariness for weeks and even months at a time. Great actions or large movements were impossible and yet it was necessary that the soldiers be kept keen and interested. It is true that the artillery could obtain practice whenever it chose by firing by the map on trenches or other objectives. Without aeroplane observation, however, which was often difficult or impossible in those months, the results of such fire were not remarkable.

THE FIRST TRENCH RAID

In November Brigadier-General Lipsett decided that the time had arrived for proving his belief that raiding parties, properly rehearsed, could enter the German lines, inflict large numbers of casualties and obtain much information without material loss to themselves. Accordingly a section of enemy trench to be operated upon was carefully photographed and numerous reconnaisances were made until the exact details of the trench, the configuration of the land, the wire and other natural or artificial obstacles in front of the objective were accurately known. A detailed model of the enemy's trenches was then dug and the men who were to make the raid were rehearsed until they knew their task by heart.

The first trench raid was made by two parties of the Fifth and Seventh battalions. One party entered the enemy trench, killed or took prisoners a large number of Germans and for twenty minutes carried on their work under enemy artillery and machine-gun fire. As the prisoners were passed back over the parapet they were taken charge of by scouts and led to the Canadian lines. When the time

was up and the raiding party had returned our own artillery dropped its fire from the German positions to the bombed section of trench, hoping to catch some of the re-enforcements which were sure to be despatched to that area.

It was a most successful venture. A few Canadians of the Seventh battalion had attacked a section of German trench, killed fifty of the enemy, brought away twelve prisoners and destroyed parapets, dugouts and machine-gun emplacements, while after they had returned, the artillery opening up on all sides, completed the task and did as much damage as possible. One Canadian soldier had been killed and another wounded, while the morale and nerve of the enemy had been shaken. Equally successful sorties were carried out by the Eighth and Tenth battalions.

This new feature of trench warfare proved so successful that an account of it was forwarded by Canadian headquarters to the British commander-in-chief. He in turn passed it on, not only to his army, but to the French army authorities, with the result that hundreds of trench raids were carried out during the winter. They served to keep our troops on edge and interested, while the total amount of damage done was very great.

Sir Douglas Haig in his report of events during the winter of December, 1915, to May, 1916, said:

> One form of midnight activity deserves special mention, namely, the raids or cutting-out parties which are made at least two or three times a week against the enemy lines. They consist of a brief attack with some special object on a section of the opposing trenches usually carried out at night by small bodies of men. The character of these operations—the preparation of a road through and under the enemy's wire, the crossing of the open ground unseen, the penetration of the enemy's trenches, the hand-to-hand fighting in the darkness, and the uncertainty of the strength of the opposing forces—give peculiar scope to the gallantry. . . and quickness of decision of the troops engaged and much skill and daring are frequently displayed.

In these trench raids the initiative was certainly with the British, the Canadians particularly seeming to be peculiarly adapted to this type of Indian-like warfare. Owing to the difficulty of using bayonets in the narrow trenches several new weapons were elaborated, such as the trench knife, and knob-kerrie, a ferocious instrument consisting of a knob on the end of a stick studded with knobs of steel.

FORMATION OF THE THIRD CANADIAN DIVISION

To the Canadian with visions of blue cloudless skies, and crisp sparkling snow, the leaden atmosphere and lowering skies of their first Christmas day in Flanders was most depressing.

The sodden fields, the shell-torn No Man's Land between the trenches, the mist laden air and the never-ending booming of the guns created an atmosphere of unreality which made the Christmas of the home land seem far away. On Christmas day the enemy made numerous efforts to fraternize with the Canadians but without success. There was practically no firing throughout the day and lugubrious German songs were wafted at intervals to our trenches.

During the long months the men of the First division had seen the terrors of war multiplied by bombs, mine throwers, rifle grenades, gas, improved artillery and trench weapons. They had met each new trial with fortitude and had proved that the Canadian volunteer was second to none in discipline, intelligence and initiative: and possessed in a remarkable degree the dogged valour associated with the Anglo-Saxon race.

The Second Canadian division had also gone through three months of the monotony of the steady round of trench tours, fatigues, rest periods with training, and the miseries of waterlogged trenches and bitter winds.

A Third Canadian division was formed under the command of Major General Mercer, C.B., during January and February of 1916. One infantry brigade was composed of battalions which had been acting as Canadian corps troops and included the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry and the Royal Canadian regiment.

The Second infantry brigade was made up of six Canadian mounted rifle regiments which had comprised part of the cavalry brigade. These two brigades of the Third division almost immediately began front line work.

Nothing unusual occurred on the Canadian front until March 27th when the Third British division on the bluff in front of St. Eloi sprang a series of seven enormous mines which shook the country for miles around like an earthquake. The German trenches were obliterated and the British advance was carried beyond the enormous craters which had been formed well into the German

support lines. The salient which had formerly existed in the British front was thereby almost exactly reversed.

The ground separating the great craters was a morass of mud pitted with shell holes filled with water. After its capture by the British every available enemy gun was turned upon the new 600-yard front, and it was literally deluged with shrapnel and high explosives.

When the Second Canadian division relieved the exhausted Third Imperial division on April 4th they found only remnants of trenches littered with dead and wounded, whole sections having been completely blotted out. The area could be held only by patrols and bombing posts until new trenches could be constructed. This task working parties of the Fifth Canadian brigade endeavoured to carry out while the men of the Sixth brigade lying out in the mud, drenched with rain, continuously bombed by Germans from vantage points and harassed by artillery and machine-gun fire were making a show of resistance. But it was only a show, for rifles and machine guns were jammed with mud and bombs could not be brought up through the heavy German barrage in sufficient quantities. After a sixty-hour bombardment, while an attempt was being made to relieve the Canadian outposts, machine gunners and fragments of battalions, the German artillery suddenly redoubled its furious cannonade. Under the terrific fire the relieving troops caught in the open blundered blindly in the darkness and mist through broken trenches and shell holes; many men disappeared in the mud or water-filled shell holes and were drowned, while all communication was lost between the relief parties and their supports. Headquarters, not knowing where these units were, because all telephone connection had been cut, could give no protective artillery support and indescribable chaos reigned over that tortured strip of territory.

Then the Germans, advancing, swept away any lingering resistance and seized two of the craters, while later on it is supposed they succeeded in taking the two adjacent craters and linking them up with one of their old supports lines.

Of subsequent operations reports are conflicting and incomplete; conditions were so chaotic that no connected story of events can be written. Groups of Canadians holding advanced positions were annihilated, runner after runner was killed and their urgent mes-

sages remained undelivered; the very contour of the ground altered as shells levelled mounds and created new hollows. No movement was possible by daylight, and in the blackness of night sense of direction was absolutely lost. Yet somehow the position was not lost, reliefs were somehow carried out, counter-attacks were still made and ground was even retaken. The "Battle of the Craters" will live as one of the greatest feats of endurance and stubborn tenacity in the history of Canadian arms, being only rivalled perhaps by the battle of Passchendaele.

For five endless days and nights the struggle was carried on by men who were beaten by every rule of warfare. Yet the stupid German mind did not, as on many other occasions, seem to realize that he had accomplished his purpose and had only to develop his advantage to achieve a genuine victory of perhaps far-reaching effects. As in the second battle of Ypres it demonstrated the fact that the ability of the individual British soldier to fight his own battles when concerted action was no longer possible, paralyzed methods based upon the formula that soldiers are machines to be led or driven but incapable of individual initiative.

On April 19th after a hurricane artillery fire our garrisons were blown out of craters six and seven and the surrounding outposts. The Germans had become the masters of the craters but finding them untenable abandoned them, and the sepulchre of many hundreds of brave Canadians became a deserted land which spring gradually transformed into green fields dotted with wild flowers.

BATTLE OF HOOGE AND SANCTUARY WOOD

The battle area then moved northward to the vicinity of Hooge. On June 1, 1916, the Third Canadian division occupied a sector in the Ypres salient a few miles south of that field of Langemark and St. Julien rendered immortal to Canadians by the deathless struggle of the First Canadian divisions. The First Canadian division occupied the line to the right of the Third division while the Second division was still on its old ground at St. Eloi farther south.

The third divisional left front line was held by the Royal Canadian regiment while the P. P. C. L. I.'s, First and Fourth Canadian mounted rifles occupied the front line from Sanctuary Wood to Mount Sorrel. Back of these were their supports and reserves holding Zouave Wood and Observatory Ridge.

On June 2d the Germans made a terrific attack on the trenches at Hooge and the north end of Sanctuary Wood, bombarding the whole front, support and communication trenches. For five hours they kept up the most intense fire after which they launched their attack supported by flame projectors. Major-General Mercer commanding the Third division and Brigadier-General Williams were making an inspection of the trenches at the time and were caught in the deluge of shells. General Mercer ordered all the artillery in his command to retaliate but the wires having already been cut the message had to be carried by two pairs of runners. A shell exploding close by seriously wounded Brigadier-General Williams and stunned General Mercer and both were carried into the "tube trench" for shelter. Hour after hour the bombardment of the C. M. R. brigade continued and their trenches were blown in one by one while the few unwounded or unburied hugged shell holes until the bombardment should lift. General Mercer tried to get back to his headquarters through the heavy barrage but was shot and had his leg broken when near Armagh Wood.

The enemy had broken through on a front of several thousand yards to a depth of over two miles. The situation was extremely critical and demanded immediate counteraction. Several counter-attacks were made that night without avail and the attacking parties were withdrawn. The German bombardment which had been put forward several hours on account of the presence of the Canadian generals in the trenches was of unprecedented intensity, over a million shells having been put over on the Canadian front in five hours.

General Mercer was killed by a British shell that night and Brigadier-General Williams was captured. In General Mercer the corps lost a fine officer and a gallant gentleman. Nothing could live in that ghastly deluge as is evidenced by the fact that one battalion, the Fourth Canadian mounted rifles, entered the fight 670 strong and came out less than sixty strong; four motor lorries carried all that was left of the battalion back to rest billets.

In the quieter days that followed information gained by patrol observation enabled the Canadian commanders to plan a successful assault.

On July 8th an attack was made by the First division on Mount Sorrell to re-establish our line there. The wire was not

sufficiently cut and the attack failed. After a complete artillery preparation against the German lines for several days and a final intense bombardment in the early morning of July 13th, the infantry attack began and proceeded like clock work. Advancing irresistibly the Canadians swept away the German resistance and completely restored the Mount Sorrel-Observatory Ridge position. Heavy punishment was inflicted upon the enemy and several hundreds of prisoners were captured. The First Canadian division had made the Huns pay dearly for their temporary success over the Third Canadian division and the enemy counter-attack failed to dislodge the Canadians who had come to stay.

ALL SINGLE MEN CALLED TO THE COLOURS IN BRITAIN

In October, 1915, the rate of recruiting had fallen dangerously low in Great Britain. There were in the country at least 2,000,000 single men of military age not enlisted. There were also many married men who were willing to join up when the unmarried had gone.

Lord Derby drew up a scheme which enlisted men by groups. Men had to enlist and then could appeal to a local tribunal for exemption. The groups were called in order, the young unmarried men first, and the married later. Enlistments began enthusiastically with the approval of the Trade Union leaders.

When Lord Derby made his report it was found that a total of 3,000,000 had placed themselves at the disposal of the country from which the yield would be less than 900,000 men. Unless steps were taken to compel the enlistment of the large unattested balance of single men the yield would be only half that number. As the nation was now generally in favor of conscription, Mr. Asquith, in January, 1916, introduced the Military Service Bill into Parliament —a bill not extended to Ireland. The Home Secretary, Sir John Simon, resigned office to lead the feeble opposition to the bill, and his argument convinced the country of the necessity for it. Mr. Balfour, Mr. Bonar Law and General Seely supported the bill which carried its second reading by a majority of 392 and had only thirty-six opponents in its final reading, the Irish Nationalists abstaining from voting.

The principle of voluntary enlistment so dear to the heart of the Englishman had gone by the board. England had at last

thrown away the scabbard and was fully determined to wield the sword until she had achieved victory or gone down to defeat.

Before next midsummer Great Britain had mobilized for direct and indirect purposes a larger proportion of her population than any belligerent country except France—a truly amazing performance. She had not only equipped the vast British army of 5,000,000 men but supplied huge quantities of equipment to her Allies. She had improvised army, officers, munitions and equipment at a period when war had become a business of the most scientific and technical decription.

Undoubtedly there was room for criticism at the time and Winston Churchill voiced the opinion of many at the front when he said that half the army was in England and had never been under fire; that for every six men recruited only one rifle appeared in the firing line, and that of the half abroad only half fought. Later on the combing-out processes in England yielded large numbers of men for service abroad.

REACTIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT

In the early months of 1916 the British army in France was opposed by forty German divisions of excellent quality. The battle of Verdun soon began to suck in all the German strategic reserves and any enemy movement on the British front became impossible. No reinforcements were required by the French though the latter were relieved by the British taking over the additional area from Loos to a point south of Arras, thereby freeing the French tenth army for service elsewhere.

The stagnation on the British front was most opportune in permitting of the training of the new British army officers and men. All formations, especially the newly created ones, were instructed in every phase of warfare. Schools for young staff officers, regimental officers and candidates for commissions were in full swing, and every effort was made to perfect the training received in England.

The stagnation on the front was not easy for either officers or men; in fact those months proved to be the hardest of the whole campaign. Each day the desultory warfare of bomb, sniper and shell took its toll of men—perhaps on the average of 500 a day. Day by day the ambulances drew up at the hospitals with their quota of wounded.

On the British western front there were numerous small battles. On February 12th after an artillery bombardment an infantry attack was made upon the British near the canal in the Ypres salient. On February 14th after heavy artillery bombardment our positions were attacked at Hooge and Sanctuary Woods without success.

At the bluff further south a bombardment and infantry attacks won some of our trenches. Seventeen days later the Third British division won back all the lost ground and some of the German line. On March 27th six huge mines were exploded by the British near St. Eloi and the craters occupied by us. Weeks of confused fighting followed at this point which will be found described more fully in the battle of the Craters by the Canadians.

On April 19th the Germans attacked at Wieltze and on the Ypres-Langemarck road, and two days later were ousted from the trenches captured by them.

On April 27th two German gas attacks were made near Loos and the infantry attack following was completely shattered by Irish troops. Two days later the enemy attempted a similar attack at Hulluch but the gas blew back upon the Germans driving them from their trenches, whereat the British troops manned the parapets and laughed hilariously. On the same day a gas attack near Messines was followed by eight infantry attacks. Sleeping six miles behind the scene of the attack on that occasion, I was wakened by clouds of gas in great concentration pouring into my room. The gas was strong enough to kill the roses and other foliage in the garden behind the house.

On May 15th we blew some mines on Vimy Ridge and occupied the German front line only to be driven out by heavy artillery fire and infantry attacks on May 21st.

These scattered actions came to a head at Hooge in the Ypres salient on June 2d. There, as stated, the Third Canadian divisional front line was obliterated and their position taken on a front of one and a half miles. The Canadians counter-attacked next day but could not hold the area regained. On June 13th the First Canadian division took back all the ground lost a few days before.

Meanwhile the stupendous contest at Verdun had been going on drawing to it all the enemy reserves as von Falkenhayn and the Crown Prince strove desperately for the little town which would

spell victory for them. And meanwhile the British perfected their war machine and made preparations for that great offensive to be known as the battle of the Somme.

THE GLORIOUS DEFENCE OF VERDUN

In March, 1916, as I skirted the British and French fronts on the road to Paris I passed through numerous little white-washed French villages each with its quota of French soldiers in sky-blue uniform and service caps resting in billets. These sturdy soldiers sitting around in the spring sunshine or chatting in groups smoking cigarettes were always ready to make friends, and at a suggestion of a smile their faces would positively beam. Like the Highlanders of Scotland these Celts were the kindest of gentlemen behind the lines and veritable demons in battle. Along the roads we passed grey columns of transport, driving furiously through clouds of dust, carrying munitions, food and other necessaries to the French front lines. Everybody seemed to be self-possessed yet at the time France was in the throes of a life and death struggle. In Paris business went on as usual, the cafés were thronged at nights and those theatres that were open were packed with citizens.

About sixty miles away huge masses of German artillery hammered the French lines at Verdun in a supreme effort to break through to Paris. The German Crown Prince, with the co-operation of von Falkenhayn, the chief of the German general staff, was making a great effort to retrieve a military reputation long since sadly tarnished. The French were perfectly certain that the Germans would never break through for they had taken their measure accurately.

"They shall not pass," ("*Ils ne passeront pas,*") was the expression of conviction in the mouths of every patriot—a conviction that was to be fully realized.

Twenty miles from Verdun were the rich iron mines of the French Briey basin which supplied three-fourths of the steel required by Germany and Austria, and there was the dual object of making this district safe.

The Kaiser had decided, in spite of the opposition of Von Hindenburg and Von Ludendorff (who promptly resigned), that the campaign designed to finally destroy the Russian army should be postponed. Accordingly Von Falkenhayn robbed every other

front of men and ammunition, gathered together artillery in quantities never before conceived of and began deliberately to blast his way through the French lines in the Verdun salient. In all, Germany seemed to have brought one hundred and eighteen divisions or two and a half millions of men to the Franco-British-Belgian front for the great offensive.

On February 19th German guns began registering and two days later a thousand field guns began a general bombardment while heavy howitzers concentrating on small sectors completely obliterated them. In this way the enormous force of heavy artillery smashed the whole of the French front line section by section. When the area had been thoroughly pulverized with shells patrols of German infantry advanced apparently in the belief that no living thing could have escaped that withering blast. The German plan was to use vast quantities of shells to save their own infantry and destroy the French. But General Castelnau, the acting commander-in-chief, did not play up to the German plan but withdrew his men from the advance and support lines until only a thin covering remained. The result was that remarkably few French troops were exposed to the devastating tempest of shells and those were largely machine gunners hidden in dugouts at some distance from the photographed and registered positions being shelled. The famous French 75's which the French gunners handled like Maxims had been carefully concealed.

As these German patrols advanced they were cut down by the French machine guns and 75's. Bombing parties and sappers shared their fate and finally the green grey waves of infantry were caught and swept away.

The fourteen German divisions that had forced their way to Douaumont Fort were increased to twenty-five divisions. In April five more divisions were thrown in. The wastage of life had been tremendous; the expenditure of shells exceeded the output of the German factories and the rifling of the great guns was wearing out yet the position was not won.

All through the summer the German waves broke in vain against the twenty-five miles of Verdun fortifications while the marvellous French artillery and French machine guns continued to mow down the German regiments. General Joffre had refused the offer of Sir Douglas Haig, the British commander-in-chief, to

NERVE-RACKING WORK FOR BOTH SIDES

Heavy British howitzer on rail emplacement bombarding German positions with high explosive shell.

A HAND-TO-HAND STRUGGLE FOR A MINE CRATER

Amid the gigantic artillery duels for the possession of Verdun, many terrific hand-to-hand encounters took place. Such a struggle is shown here. In the center of the picture a bombing party assaults a German barricade. Deep down in the blasted earth German soldiers, torn, wounded and bewildered, await captivity or death.

make a great counter-offensive on the British front and thereby relieve the pressure at Verdun. Instead of sending a telegram that would send a million British troops against the German lines and compel Von Falkenhayn to redistribute his troops, his guns and his shells, Joffre sent reassuring messages to Sir Douglas Haig assuring him that all was going well.

In the autumn the French under General Nivelle suddenly struck back and directed a series of attacks against the German forces on both sides of the Meuse. On October 24th a final grand attack resulted in the recapture of Fort Douaumont followed on November 2d by the recapture of Fort Vaux, ending the most glorious effort in the magnificent military history of France.

In this long and bloody conflict German arms suffered a disastrous defeat with the loss of thousands of men, and though she inflicted severe casualties on France she failed in her effort to bleed France white. Thereafter the great burden of the war in the west and the larger share of the casualties was to be shouldered by Great Britain whose armies had now become a mighty force.

AUSTRIAN ATTACK IN TRENTINO

In the spring of 1916 the Archduke Charles, heir to the Austrian throne, had gathered an army of a million men in the Trentino of which 400,000 were combatants. Large numbers of batteries had also been collected for the attack which was designed to take the plain of Venetia, through which ran the two main railway communication lines to the Isonzo.

On May 14th the attack opened with a bombardment of more than 2,000 guns on a thirty-mile front; it literally blasted away the Italian front lines. On May 20th after severe fighting Cadorna slowly fell back while his reserve army of half a million men was assembling at Vicenzo. Week after week desperate fighting had been going on, but the enemy was held, and on June 3d General Cadorna announced that the Austrian offensive had been checked.

The Austrian attack in the Trentino had deferred for the time Italy's main offensive. It had cost the Italians many men but it awakened Italy to the fact that she was at war. A new cabinet was formed under Signor Boselli while all Italy felt proud that her army had been able to hold the Austrians and would presently drive them back.

CHAPTER XVII

The Battle of Jutland.

That great American writer on the value of Sea Power—Captain Mahan—established the thesis that in war the nation possessing the greater sea power is likely to win.

Without further preliminary it may be claimed that the British fleet proved the insuperable obstacle to Germany's plan of world domination. Steadily and irresistibly it closed up the German streams of supply of food, raw materials, metals and other essentials upon which German life depended, and made it possible for the Allies to achieve the final victory.

Before a blow had been struck the British navy had assured to the Allies the following vital results:

1. The High Seas Fleet of Germany, costing her $1,500,000,000, had been driven into its strongly fortified ports.

2. Five million five hundred thousand tons of German shipping and 1,000,000 tons of Austrian shipping were driven off the high seas, or captured.

3. The oversea trade of Germany and Austria had been strangled.

4. The German oversea empire had been torn from them.

5. Two million enemy subjects of military age abroad were prevented from joining the enemy.

6. Ocean communication with the markets of the world were closed to the enemy and kept open to the Allies.

Anticipating a little, it may be said that the allied cause could be carried on only through the protection afforded by the British fleet. Every man, every gun, every shell, every pound of supplies shipped to the fields of France, Belgium, Italy and other fronts, was possible because the British navy held the seas. The transportation of millions of soldiers to France and other theatres of war; the carrying of hundreds of thousands of enthusiastic volunteers from the British colonies to Europe; the feeding of the millions of allied soldiers in Europe, and the prevention of famine

among their civilian populations; the purchase and delivery of enormous quantities of munitions, raw materials, machinery and equipment from America and other neutral countries, were rendered possible by the fact that the British Grand Fleet, steaming in the troubled waters of the North Sea, and the lesser fleets in many other seas, watched the great ocean highways and rendered the enemy impotent.

And to anticipate further, it made possible, when the United States threw her weight into the scales with the Allies, the transportation of 2,000,000 American soldiers to France, sixty per cent of which were actually carried in British transports.

With a superior navy, Germany could have blockaded England, brought her to terms quickly, and France, left to fight alone, would have proved a comparatively easy victim. Germany well knew the necessity of a powerful fleet and had, for fourteen years, laboured to create one that would approximate that of Great Britain.

Von Tirpitz, the German naval minister, had, with the aid of Emperor William, been able to enthuse the German nation with the ambition to become a mighty sea power and conquer the hated British. The achievement of Von Tirpitz was a marvellous performance, for in fourteen years he was actually able to evolve a navy more than sixty per cent (on paper) as powerful as the whole of that of Great Britain, but, actually, as events proved, much superior to Great Britain's fleet in mechanical firing devices, armour protection and armour-piercing type of shell.

The strength of the German High Sea Fleet and the British Grand Fleet at the beginning of the war may be seen by the following comparison taken from Admiral Viscount Jellicoe's book, "The Great Fleet."

	British Grand Fleet.	German High Sea Fleet.
Battleships	28	29
Battle cruisers	4	3
Light cruisers	12	15
Destroyers	42	88

The result of rivalry had been to stimulate the building of ships and greatly enhance the training and spirit of the men, as well as the equipment of the British fleet. In 1914 the British navy had reached a point of efficiency hitherto unprecedented.

The grand fleet, whose object was to attack and destroy the German High Seas Fleet, cruised solely in the North Sea. It consisted of one battle cruiser squadron, four battle squadrons, three cruiser squadrons, two destroyer flotillas and mine-laying gunboats. There were also two destroyer flotillas based on Harwich, under Commodore Tyrwhitt, which it was hoped might, in the event of a general engagement, join the grand fleet. This combination of the Harwich force with the grand fleet never occurred during the war.

Outside of home waters Britain also maintained fleets in the Mediterranean, in Eastern and Chinese waters, and in Australian, while numerous cruisers and gunboats patrolled the Cape, West Africa and the Western Atlantic.

The combination of the French and British fleet was immediately responsible for the sealing up of the Austrian fleet in the Adriatic, and enabled the Allies to carry on in the Mediterranean without interruption.

The German fleet was unable to issue from the Baltic by the regular passage which was closed by Denmark. Neither could the British enter the Baltic for the same reason. The German fleet could, however, pass to and fro at will from the North Sea to the Baltic through the Kiel Canal, which had been completed a few weeks only before the war.

The plan of the German admiral was to avoid open battle until, through submarines and mines, the British power had been sufficiently weakened. The British hope was that the German fleet would risk a great battle, but in this, until 1916, they were to be bitterly disappointed.

The old type of sea fighting had long ago disappeared. Steel had replaced wood; high explosives had replaced solid shot; engines had replaced sails; fighting occurred at long range, instead of grappling at close range, with all the excitement of boarding one another. And everything else had changed since the British fleet had last been engaged in a great battle. Overhead were Zeppelins, seaplanes, and aeroplanes, prepared to scout, direct fire and drop bombs, while underseas submarines lurked ready to sink with a single torpedo the finest battleship afloat, and mines were anchored which at a touch would blow a great ship out of the water.

A modern navy had become essentially an organization of engineering skill, operated by engineers and scientists of the highest grade. To pick out a moving object as large as a pin point ten miles off and moving at a speed of perhaps twenty-five or thirty miles an hour, and drop a projectile containing many hundreds of pounds of high explosive upon that object required a skill, a knowledge of mathematics and a poise that could only be obtained by long years of training and experience. Such were the requirements of the modern naval fighting man in the fleet commanded by Sir John Jellicoe.

In this new act of naval science which did not require that peculiar seamanship for which England had been so long famous, it was feared that Germans, with none of the real old-time sailor qualifications would prove the match of the British; and not until the great battle of Jutland was this question finally settled.

With the exception of a few vessels, the Germans ceased to exist on the high seas. During the first week of the war the German warships *Goeben* and *Breslau* were in the Mediterranean off the Algerian coast. Attempting to escape into the Atlantic they were turned back by the British fleet off Gibraltar, and made off eastward, passing through the Dardanelles to Constantinople. Everywhere else in the empire German merchantmen were seized, and hundreds of ships were captured on the high seas.

For nearly two years the British Grand Fleet had been waiting for the German High Sea Fleet to come out and give battle. In the battle of the Bight, on August 28, 1914, the British fleet had encountered cruisers only. In the raid on Hartlepool in December, Sir David Beatty, on account of fog, just failed to intercept the enemy ships, and in the battle of the Doggerbank, on January 24, 1915, an accident to his ship, necessitating his transfer to a destroyer, prevented him from destroying the fleet of enemy battle cruisers. On every occasion in which they had been sighted the German warships had turned and fled.

Month after month the various squadrons of the Grand Fleet had rehearsed their parts. Special gun practice had taken place at sea and special torpedo boat manœuvres worked out with the object of repelling torpedo attacks.

Part of the routine of the Grand Fleet consisted in periodic sweeps of the North Sea by the Battle Cruiser Fleet under Sir

David Beatty. The battle cruisers were especially suited for such work, for, in addition to being very large and lightly armoured, they were exceedingly fast and were equipped with the longest range guns. In case of hostile ships being sighted the great speed of the battle cruisers enabled them to keep the enemy under observation and at the same time to shell them at long range.

On May 30, 1916, the British Grand Fleet, in two divisions, left its northern bases on one of its customary sweeps. On the north was the battle fleet under Sir John Jellicoe. With the battle fleet was one battle cruiser squadron, three cruiser squadrons, and three destroyer flotillas.

The battle fleet under Sir John Jellicoe was in six divisions, disposed as follows:

First Division—*King George V* (F), *Ajax, Centurion, Erin.*
Second Division—*Orion* (F), *Monarch, Conqueror, Thunderer.*
Third Division—*Iron Duke* (FF), *Royal Oak, Superb* (F), *Canada.*
Fourth Division—*Benbow* (F), *Bellerophon, Temeraire, Vanguard.*
Fifth Division—*Colossus* (F), *Collingwood, Neptune, St. Vincent.*
Sixth Division—*Marlborough* (F), *Revenge, Hercules, Agincourt.*
F—Flagship; FF—Fleet Flagship.

They were screened by the Fourth, Eleventh and Twelfth Flotillas with the Fourth Light Cruiser Squadron three miles ahead of the battle fleet.

The cruisers with one destroyer to each cruiser steamed sixteen miles ahead of the battle fleet, the cruisers being eight miles apart in the following order from east to west:

First Line: *Cochrane, Shannon, Minotaur, Defence, Duke of Edinburgh, Black Prince.*

Warrior (in the immediate rear).

Hampshire (six miles astern).

To the south under Sir David Beatty steamed the battle cruiser fleet consisting of two battle cruiser squadrons, a battle squadron, four vessels of the Queen Elizabeth class, three light cruiser squadrons and four destroyer flotillas. The two divisions of the Grand Fleet were not sharply defined as battle squadrons and battle cruiser squadrons, since Sir John Jellicoe had with him one squadron of battle cruisers, while Sir David Beatty had a squadron of the largest battleships.

On the same day that the British Grand Fleet put to sea the

German High Sea Fleet also left its harbours and sailed northward. For some time it had been confidently predicted in Great Britain, though without any definite information on which to base the prediction, that the German navy would be forced to come out and fight. Whether the German fleet had been driven forth by public opinion or hoped to catch part of the British fleet and destroy it through overwhelming numbers, or whether it had the greater object of escorting cruisers which were to become raiders after dashing into the Atlantic we have, as yet, no knowledge.

About midday Sir David Beatty's fleet turned northward to join that of Sir John Jellicoe,when, at 2.30, the *Galatea*,the flagship of the First Light Cruiser Squadron, reported enemy vessels to the east.

Sir David Beatty at once changed his course to southeast, in order to separate the enemy from his base. At 2.35 observers on the *Lion* saw heavy smoke to the east and northeast.

The First and Third Light Cruiser Squadrons then spread in a screen before the battle cruisers, while a seaplane sent up from the mother ship *Engadine* (Campania) identified and reported the presence of the enemy. Five minutes later, in battle formation, Sir David Beatty came in sight of the German Admiral von Hipper's five battle cruisers.

Sir David Beatty had previously missed by a slender margin the opportunity of destroying the finest of the German ships. He now chose the course which was not only heroic but strategically sound. Though he possessed the advantage for the moment the enemy was clearly falling back upon the main fleet so that shortly the odds would be reversed. Nevertheless he took the chance.

At this time the German admiral was steering east-southeast in the direction of his base and Beatty took the same course some 23,000 yards distant. The fleet of Sir David was led by the Second Light Cruiser Squadron with two destroyer flotillas; then followed the First Battle Cruiser Squadron led by the admiral's flagship *Lion*, the Second Battle Cruiser Squadron, and then the Fifth Battle Squadron.

At a range of 18,500 yards the battle opened, the fleets proceeding at a speed of twenty-five knots. Almost immediately a shot struck the *Indefatigable* and she blew up. At 4.18 a German battle cruiser was set on fire and shortly after the *Queen Mary* was

also hit, and blew up. This left Sir David Beatty only four battle cruisers.

Meanwhile, as the great fighting machines tore southward at racing speed, eight destroyers of the Thirteenth Flotilla had moved forward to make a torpedo attack. They met fifteen destroyers and a cruiser of the enemy engaged on the same mission and drove them back. Two German destroyers and one British destroyer were sunk and one British destroyer put out of action.

The Second Light Cruiser Squadron, which all the time had been scouting ahead of the battle cruisers, reported the proximity of the German Battle Fleet at 4.38. Immediately Admiral Beatty turned northward in an effort to lead the whole German fleet toward Sir John Jellicoe. Since Zeppelins were useless for observation purposes that day the presence of Sir John Jellicoe's fleet was unknown to Admiral von Hipper and he pursued Beatty evidently thinking he had caught him alone.

Beatty was now fighting against heavy odds for he had only eight first-class ships against nineteen German and Sir John Jellicoe was still fifty miles off. But he had the speed of the enemy—a vital factor. Beatty had succeeded in getting his battle cruisers on the bow of the enemy, who could not change his direction without exposing himself to enfilading fire from the British battle cruisers at the head of the line.

At this time the weather changed for the worse. The enemy was shrouded in mist while the British ships were silhouetted against a clear sky. Notwithstanding, the British gunnery was effective and a German battle cruiser was compelled to fall out of line. Beatty hauled his course gradually to the northeast in order that Sir John Jellicoe, who was then not far off, would be able to strike to the best advantage. At 5.56 he sighted the British Battle Fleet, at once changed his course to the east and increased his speed, forcing the enemy to a course on which with a fair amount of luck he could be overwhelmed by the British fleet.

When Sir John Jellicoe knew that the enemy had been sighted he at once proceeded at full speed to join battle with him, several of his ships exceeding their trials speeds. The battle fleet was led by Rear-Admiral Hood's Third Battle Cruiser Squadron. At 6.10 P. M. Hood sighted Beatty's squadron and brought his own squadron into action at a range of 8,000 yards. In a few minutes his

flagship, *Invincible*, blew up at the head of the British line and with her perished the heroic admiral.

The First and Second Cruiser Squadrons had now come into action and had sunk one enemy cruiser. The destroyer *Shark* which had accounted for two enemy destroyers was herself torpedoed and sunk.

Sir Robert Arbuthnot, in command of the First Cruiser Squadron, owing to the mist, got between the British and German battle fleets and lost the *Defence* and *Black Prince* while the *Warrior* was disabled. This gallant admiral signalled a cheerful apology to his fleet as he went down.

Meanwhile one of Beatty's destroyers, the *Onslow*, attacked first an enemy cruiser, then their battle cruisers. After being struck by a heavy shell she discharged three torpedoes at the enemy battle fleet and was then taken in tow by *Defender*, who was herself damaged. Sir David Beatty wrote: "I consider the performances of these two destroyers to be gallant in the extreme and I am recommending Lieutenant-Commander J. C. Tovey of *Onslow*, and Lieutenant-Commander L. R. Palmer of *Defender* for special recognition."

At 6.16 a signal was made to the battle fleet to form line of battle on the port-wing column on a course southeast by east.

The question and manner of deployment was of vital importance. To form on the starboard-wing column would bring the fleet into action at the earliest possible moment. Sir John Jellicoe decided that such an action possessed the obvious disadvantage that the German destroyers would be ahead of their battle fleet and in the mist would have a great opportunity for torpedo attacks during deployment. There was also great danger of the First Battle Squadron, especially the *Marlborough* division, being severely handled by the concentrated fire of the German fleet before the remaining divisions could get into line. The First Battle Squadron contained some of the older lightly armoured ships. It would require four minutes for each division to come into line and a further interval for their gun fire to become effective. Finally the van of the enemy would have a considerable overlap on the British.

At the moment of deployment the van of the enemy's battle fleet was 13,000 yards away. The fleets were converging rapidly and the High Seas Fleet would have possessed a great advantage in

engaging effectively, first the unsupported starboard division, and subsequently succeeding divisions as they formed up astern, had the line of battle formed on the starboard-wing column.

At 6.50 Sir David Beatty had turned the German leading vessels to the southeast. In order were the First, Second and Third Battle Cruiser Squadrons, followed by the Second, Fourth and First Battle Squadrons. On account of the weather the single line formation was adopted because operation by independent division was impossible. The Fifth Battle Squadron had formed astern of the line and *Warspite*, having had her steering gear damaged, ran around in a circle firing at every enemy in sight, while she herself came under a furious bombardment which, curiously enough, did her little harm. The enemy, now outnumbered, had, by the skillful strategy of the British admirals, been separated from their base and it only needed a little luck and some daylight to give the British fleet the opportunity for which it had long prayed, of blowing the entire German fleet out of the water.

The German Admiral von Scheer, however, had no desire to take any further chances and steamed southward at full speed. Unfortunately the mist greatly reduced the visibility and made accurate firing exceedingly difficult, though what light there was favoured the British. The German battleships had become targets for the British battle cruisers and whenever the light permitted great shells were plumped into them with amazing accuracy.

At 7.14 two German battle cruisers and two battleships were sighted and one was set on fire. Under cover of a smoke screen from German destroyers they turned away and were again lost to sight.

At 8.30 three enemy battleships were again sighted of which all three were set on fire and again lost in the mist.

At 6.17 the British Battle Fleet had become engaged with enemy battleships which were now concentrating their attention upon escaping. In the short time in which they were visible the enemy battleships were heavily hit by the British while the German fire was feeble. Though the weather was particularly favourable for torpedo attacks the Germans succeeded in making only one hit—on the *Marlborough*, which however remained in action.

The First, Second and Fourth Battle Squadrons had also been engaged with the enemy and had made wonderful practise on

enemy battleships. The cruiser squadron had also been hard at it, attacking destroyers and making torpedo attacks; four enemy destroyers were sunk in these actions.

At nine o'clock darkness was falling rapidly and the enemy had completely disappeared. It was impossible for the British fleet to force an action in a sea swarming with torpedo boats and underwater craft. Sir John Jellicoe knew that the German star shells and searchlights were greatly superior to his own—so good, in fact, that their star shells brilliantly illuminated our vessels while theirs remained in darkness—and that he would only be courting disaster by attempting to force the issue under the circumstances. Accordingly he made the necessary dispositions for the night, placing the torpedo flotillas where they would protect the fleet from destroyer attacks, and manœuvring his fleet so as to keep between the enemy and the enemy's base.

During the night the battle was carried on exclusively by the lighter craft. With Sir David Beatty were the First and Third Light Cruiser Squadrons, which protected the head of the British line from torpedo attack and also the First, Ninth, Tenth and Thirteenth Destroyer Flotillas.

The Second Light Cruiser Squadron and the First and Thirteenth Destroyer Flotillas were at the rear of the battle line with the Fifth Battle Squadron. During the night the enemy began slipping past under cover of darkness and numerous isolated engagements took place. The Second Light Cruiser Squadron repelled a torpedo attack on the Queen Elizabeths of the Fifth Battle Squadron. The *Southampton* and *Dublin* became engaged with five enemy cruisers. At 11.30 several heavy ships slipped through the British line in the fog. Another battleship steamed by at full speed and was apparently torpedoed. At 12.30 another large vessel passing astern of the Fifth Battle Squadron opened fire on British vessels.

The principal torpedo attacks were made by the Fourth, Eleventh and Twelfth Destroyer Flotillas which were with Sir John Jellicoe. The Twelfth Flotilla attacked a squadron of six large vessels of the Kaiser class, one of which was blown up and another hit. The Fourth Flotilla had the heaviest fighting and lost one destroyer. This wonderful class of fighting ship won great glory. In the words of Sir John Jellicoe "They surpassed the very highest expectations that I had formed of them." It was a marvellous

performance for those who saw the battle. German flares and searchlights at times made the placid sea as light as day; the heavy crashes of salvos and exploding shells deafened the ear and their angry red flashes lit up the sky for miles.

When dawn appeared there was no enemy fleet in sight. It had slipped through the British lines or scattered and the German warships, like a broken flight of wild geese, were steaming full speed for the safety of their harbours. At 4 A. M. a Zeppelin passed over and probably warned the enemy of the location of the British fleet. The visibility was less than four miles and Sir John Jellicoe waited for the enemy to reappear out of the mist and attack. At 11 A. M. he was reluctantly forced to the conclusion that the High Sea Fleet had gone home. Accordingly the British Grand Fleet, after picking up any survivors that could be found, returned to its bases, where it arrived next morning, fueled and replenished its stores of ammunition and was ready for action again at 9.30 that night.

What constitutes a victory? The Germans immediately claimed a great victory, stating in support of their claim the greater tonnage and number of vessels sunk of the British fleet, and it must be admitted the claim appeared valid. But if the British navy had been defeated why did it still continue to sweep the North Sea while the German High Sea Fleet remained at home in its defended harbours?

The British Fleet was the one and only factor that was vital to the British Empire. It was true, as Admiral Jellicoe stated, that the British fleet was deficient in destroyers and light cruisers; her shells were inferior to the German's which exploded after they had pierced the armour plate instead of upon impact as the British shells did; the German gun laying devices and searchlights were superior to the British; the enemy vessels were far better protected by armour than were the British, and the Germans had the advantage of Zeppelins for observation purposes.

As a result of the use of armour piercing-shells fine vessels like *Queen Mary* and *Indefatigable* when hit in a vital spot blew up and disappeared in a few seconds, while German vessels struck much more frequently survived and were able to wing their way homeward. As a matter of fact all the German battle cruisers and several of their battleships were so severely battered as to be incapable of further fighting for several months. No mention was made in the

German official report issued of the loss of the battle cruiser *Lutzow*, the light cruiser *Rostock*, the beaching of the *Seydlitz* or of the fact that four battleships had been torpedoed though not sunk. The Germans, also, in order to establish their victory, claimed to have sunk one battleship, one armoured cruiser, three light cruisers and five destroyers more than were actually destroyed. The following is a corrected list of the losses incurred by both sides:

GERMAN LOSSES

	Tons
1 Dreadnought	24,000
1 Deutschland	13,200
1 Battle cruiser *Lutzow*	28,000
5 Light cruisers (Rostock class)	24,500
6 Destroyers	4,800
1 Submarine	800
Total	95,300

(*Seydlitz*, 24,610 tons, beached)

BRITISH LOSSES

	Tons
Queen Mary—battle cruiser	27,000
Indefatigable " "	18,750
Invincible " "	17,250
Defence—armoured cruiser	14,600
Black Prince " "	13,550
Warrior " "	13,550
Tipperary—destroyer	1,430
Ardent "	935
Fortune "	935
Shark "	935
Sparrowhawk "	935
Nestor "	1,000
Nomad "	1,000
Turbulent "	1,430
Total	113,300

Wilhelmshaven was closed to the world and for many months it was guarded with jealous care while the battered German fleet was undergoing its much-needed repairs. Even Captain Persius, the most reputable German naval critic, wrote: "On June 1st it was clear to every thinking person that this battle must and would be the last one."

Captain Persius also said, that the hope that the German fleet would be able in a second battle to beat the British depended upon the bluff and lies of the naval authorities. In the battle of Jutland he declared that the German fleet escaped destruction partly by good leadership and partly by favourable weather conditions. Had the weather been clear or Admiral Von Scheer's leadership less able the destruction of the whole German navy would have resulted. The long-range British guns would have completely smashed the lighter armoured German ships. As it was the loss of the German fleet was enormous.

It is interesting to note in conclusion that Captain Persius approved of the navy refusing to go out to fight towards the end of the war, as it would have been a waste of life without hope of success.

It was surely a weird victory which compelled the victors to remain till the end of the war within the shelter of Helgoland while the so-called "vanquished" fleet continued to patrol and control the high seas more surely and powerfully than ever before.

The damage received by the vessels of the British fleet was quickly made good and the majority of the small number affected were completed within a month. Even the *Marlborough* which had been torpedoed and sustained the greatest amount of damage rejoined the fleet in August.

The passive or defensive rôle of the German fleet of remaining in its harbours continued without intermission, with the result that the morale of the men declined, and a series of mutinies broke out in 1917 and 1918 which culminated in the final great mutiny of November, 1918.

Admiral Jellicoe has been freely criticized for his action in turning to the left (deploying on the port-wing column) instead of to the right as the British Battle Squadron came within effective range. Admiral Jellicoe stated that had he turned to the right the awkward manœuvre would have thrown the British Battle Fleet into great confusion, and an enemy concentration of fire on the turning point would have been very effective upon our ships.

At the same time the British Battle Fleet would have been in a position where it would be open to attack by destroyers during the turning movement. None of these disadvantages occurred by turning to the left.

It is possible that the decision of Admiral Jellicoe saved the

German fleet from absolute destruction. On the other hand, believing that an invasion of England was always possible during the war and that it was essential to preserve the strength of the fleet to prevent that invasion, he felt the necessity of avoiding battle till he could attack with less risk. The few minutes necessary for deployment might have given the enemy the opportunity of sinking a large number of our capital ships and Jellicoe preferred to risk his own reputation rather than the safety of the British Empire.

The battle of Jutland was the most important event to the Allies of the whole war. On land it is usually possible to make good the losses which have been incurred; it may even be possible to convert a defeat into a victory through skilled strategy. But in a naval battle the losses cannot be made good for years, and a decisive and overwhelming defeat means the complete destruction of the beaten fleet. It is apparent that had the British Fleet been wiped out or badly crippled at the battle of Jutland, Great Britain would have been open to invasion, her lines of communication would have been cut through loss of control of the Channel, her reserves of men would have been isolated in England, the British army in France would have been deprived of food and munitions, Great Britain and the allied nations would have been separated from their storehouses of food in America and the war would have rapidly come to a conclusion through a general surrender to Germany. Admiral Jellicoe may be open to criticism but it is safe to say that the historian in future years will rank his action in playing safe as the work of a great man and will thank God that that type of man happened to be in command of the British Fleet at the time.

DEATH OF LORD KITCHENER

On June 5th Lord Kitchener arrived at Scapa en route to Archangel. He dined with Admiral Jellicoe aboard the flagship *Iron Duke* and listened with much interest to the story of the recent battle off Jutland. The weather which had been bad gradually became worse and after some consultation it was decided that the *Hampshire* should pass northward close inshore rather than by the route further to the west. The route decided upon, it was thought would enable destroyers to keep up with the *Hampshire* better than in the rougher open sea and besides there would be less probability of the route being mined. Mine sweeping had been out

of the question for three or four days. Earl Kitchener, accompanied by his staff, Brigadier-General Ellishaw, Sir F. Donaldson, Colonel Fitzgerald, Mr. O'Beirne of the Foreign Office, Mr. Robertson of the Munitions Department, and Second Lieutenant McPherson of the Cameron Highlanders, went aboard the *Hampshire* at 4 o'clock and sailed at 5.30 P. M. accompanied by two destroyers. The orders were for the *Hampshire* to proceed at a speed of at least sixteen knots and to send the destroyers back if they could not maintain the *Hampshire's* speed.

At 7 P. M. the destroyers were ordered back because they were unable to face the heavy seas. Between 7.30 and 7.45 the *Hampshire* struck a mine about one and a half miles off shore between the Brough of Bersay and Marwick Head and sank in fifteen minutes. The accident was seen from the shore and a telephone message to the vice-admiral commanding the Orkney Islands brought patrol vessels to the spot, while Admiral Jellicoe sent destroyers to the scene. All night long the waters were searched and many dead bodies were picked up or drifted ashore. The only survivors were twelve men who floated ashore on a raft. The body of Lord Kitchener was not recovered. Though orders had been given by Captain Saville to prepare a boat for Lord Kitchener and his staff it was impossible to lower any boats in such a sea. When last seen Earl Kitchener of Khartoum, Field-Marshal of the British Army, was on deck quietly talking to a companion.

Any doubt as to whether the loss of the *Hamsphire* was due to a mine or submarine was set at rest by mine sweepers, which discovered other moored mines in the neighbourhood of the type laid down by enemy submarines.

The news brought mourning to the whole empire, and all classes and condition of people were affected by a real grief. He was beyond doubt the most dominant personality in the empire at the time; his popular prestige was immense and he had an air of mystery which made him something of an unreal character to the public. His strong face, his wonderful eyes, his silence, his fine presence raised him to a place where he had become almost a figure of romance. To the French people he was a magnificent, god-like genius—the great Kitchener, the austere and silent soldier, the woman-hater, a man of granite and steel who could accomplish anything.

Photo from Press Illustrating Service.

FIRST BATTLE SQUADRON OF THE BRITISH NAVY

The credit of maintaining the freedom of the seas throughout the war belongs to these splendid fighting machines under the command of Admiral Beatty.

ADMIRAL SIR JOHN JELLICOE
Chief of the Naval Staff

VICE-ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY
Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Fleet.

Behind him lay many proud achievements. The conquest of the Sudan, a wonderfully successful administration of the Egyptian protectorate, the completion of the South African campaign and, above all, the organization of the British Empire for the great war, are mighty achievements which will make him live for all time.

TRIBUTES TO THE GREAT SOLDIER

The popular impression of Lord Kitchener is that he was a strong, stern man, hard and unbending. But those who knew him well do not confirm that impression.

General Sir William Robertson, British Chief of Imperial General Staff, said:

"It is universally admitted that, if we eventually win this war, as we may hope to do, the chief credit will be due to Lord Kitchener, for he alone, so far as I am aware, grasped from the first the magnitude of the task in front of us. The rapidity and efficiency with which he caused the new armies to be raised, equipped and put into the field were little short of marvellous. . . .

"The stern, ruthless, overbearing character commonly attributed to him had little foundation in fact, so far as my knowledge of the man goes. . . . I have never been brought into contact with one who was more easy to serve. He was a tower of strength when times were bad . . . and those who . . . got behind his naturally shy and forbidding exterior, knew him to be a kind and considerate gentleman, thoroughly honest in word and deed . . ."

General Joffre said: "Right from the outbreak of hostilities, with a vision one must now recognize as prophetic of the necessities of the struggle in which his country was engaged he evolved the scheme of the new military organization that had to be set on foot; with his tenacious will, undaunted by difficulties of organization, instruction, or equipment, he carried through the plan he had set himself to accomplish. Less than a year after the opening of the campaign, divisions of Kitchener's army were measuring forces with the enemy overseas. . . .

"It was under the flag of France that this great Englishman first bore arms. It is for the common glory of France and Great Britain that he has fallen, a soldier. His death has struck me as

that of a personal friend and of one of the best friends of my country."

Count Cadorna, chief of the Italian army, wrote: "Even in his appearance he seemed to give a wonderful reproduction of the national character of our Allies beyond the Channel: that combination of calm serenity and unshakable will which they contribute to the great common enterprise. He communicated an impression of controlled strength; one divined that he was inspired by a limitless energy, that no difficulty could stay him until he had reached the goal. . . . The quality which I most appreciated in the late Field-Marshal was the sureness of his judgment. Lord Kitchener gave an unforgetable proof of this quality when, on the outbreak of the war, he showed so clear a vision of the nature of the struggle and of the part in it which England had to play."

CHAPTER XVIII

The Canadian Corps in the Great Somme Offensive

The Somme River winds through the chalk lands of Picardy in a broad valley. The rolling level land of Picardy without a hedge is dotted with little farming communities and little towns. The district is known as Santerre—perhaps from *sang terre*—the land of blood—for it is one of the old bloody cockpits of Europe.

There had been little activity on the Picardy front until the summer of 1916. It was a region where only a great continuous offensive could achieve anything. The British had taken over the line from Arras to the Somme in 1915, and had spent a quiet winter in the trenches—a winter which the Germans had devoted to converting their lines into fortresses almost impregnable.

The Germans had attempted to hold the western front with the minimum number of men and to destroy the Russian armies in the East. In that they failed and the Russian army was still in fighting trim. The Allies were now well supplied with guns and munitions on the western front, their higher commands were co-operating more closely and showed a tendency to concentrate all of their activities in the main theatre of action. To offset the coming allied offensive on all fronts Germany attacked at Verdun hoping to induce the Allies into premature counter-attacks and dissipate their energies. Petain conserved his man-power at Verdun, and Verdun, instead of bleeding France white, as had been the intention, became a trap where Germany was bleeding white.

The Austrian attack in the Trentino had failed, and in the east Russia had put half a million Austrians out of action. Consequently Germany had to despatch divisions from the western front and was now concerned to find sufficient troops to meet the expected allied offensive. The German commander did not have sufficient nerve to fall back and shorten his line, as the situation demanded, because of the moral effect on The Fatherland.

The aim of the Allies in the great Somme offensive was not to capture territory or seize any given positions. Their purpose

was to exert a steady pressure on a wide section of the German front. The allied method was to break up the German front by stages after heavy artillery bombardments. Then when a sufficient space had been opened up it would be widened and deepened by renewed bombardments and attacks with fresh infantry divisions. The main object of the allied attack was primarily to bring into action, weaken and destroy the German army. Its subsidiary objects were to weaken the pressure on the French at Verdun and prevent the transference of German troops to the eastern front for use against Brussilov.

The British armies had now grown from the six divisions composing the original Expeditionary Force to seventy divisions in the field, besides those from the British Colonies. In addition there were enough troops in reserve to supply the wastage for a year. The auxiliary services excelled those of any other combatant and our gunnery had so improved that we could lay down a barrage along any line which could compete with the best. At the second battle of Ypres the Canadians had fired 1,000 shells from a single gun in twenty-four hours, a record that was frequently reached and showed a remarkable adaptation of civilians to a most scientific and difficult profession.

Each original gun had now been replaced by hundreds of all calibres, while trench mortars of a fine new type had been produced in huge numbers. Vast quantities of munitions were being turned out daily in Great Britain and transported to France.

The old Contemptibles had now entirely disappeared and their place taken by a civilian army composed of Territorials, the new army of Kitchener and the various colonial contingents.

The preparations for the great Somme offensive were most elaborate and comprehensive. The roads had to be improved and new ones built, frequently over marshy ground. Scores of miles of railways had to be built. Hundreds of dugouts had to be dug as shelter for troops, dressing stations and magazines for storing munitions, food, water and engineering material. Miles of deep communication trenches, as well as trenches for telephone wires, assembling and assault trenches had to be dug.

To meet the difficulties of supplying water, which was scarce in that region, many wells and borings were sunk and over one hundred pumping plants installed. One hundred and twenty miles

of water mains were laid and everything prepared to extend those mains as the troops advanced.

The front to be attacked by the British running from the south of Gommecourt to the junction with the French at Maricourt was under the command of General Sir Henry Rawlinson with five army corps.

The front, which the French Sixth army of three corps under General Fayolle was to attack, stretched from Maricourt to Fay.

In the middle of June on the whole British front of ninety miles an intermittent bombardment of the German lines began. Raids on the German trenches were numerous; in the week before the attack seventy trench raids were undertaken between Gommecourt and Ypres for the purpose of identifying enemy units and obtaining other information. In the same week gas was discharged by the British at forty different places.

On June 24th the bombardment increased along the whole front and enemy trenches were wiped out at Fricourt, Ypres and elsewhere.

The artillery fire was intensified in the Somme area; and from Mt. Rouge, where I listened to it at nights, it sounded as if several thunderstorms in the south were battling for mastery. The crashes of thousands of guns merging into huge peals of thunder rolled continuously through the night air while the whole sky flickered red with the myriad flashes of the explosions.

Everybody on the front was on the qui vive with a curious exhilaration, for the long-looked-for giant offensive was at hand.

On July 1st every gun on a front of twenty-five miles fired without cessation, while the enemy slopes heaved and spouted from the tornado of bursting shells. At 7.30 a lull in the guns indicated that the range had been lengthened. The bombardment became a barrage, under cover of which along a twenty-five-mile front the allied soldiers had gone over the parapet and were plodding forward toward the German first position.

The enemy had expected an attack on the front from Arras to Albert and was fully prepared for it. In general terms, though the British forces won through at many places in the northern sector, there were many other places where they were held up. In consequence those units which had penetrated the enemy lines, in some cases as much as 2,000 yards, were compelled to fall back and resume their old positions.

In the south the British attack succeeded brilliantly, while for eight miles south of the junction with the British, the French advanced with lightning speed. The Allies had succeeded in completely capturing the first German position from Mametz to Fay on a front of fourteen miles, and in taking 6,000 prisoners.

The second stage of the battle began on July 14th with an attack which drove the enemy from Trones Wood, captured Bazenturle-petit and Wood, High Wood and Delville Wood; while farther south the village of Ovillers was taken. These results were of considerable importance. The enemy's second main system of defence had been captured on a three-mile front, he had been forced back a mile and we had gained possession of the southern crest of the main ridge on a front of 6,000 yards.

On July 18th the enemy counter-attacked on Delville Wood and recaptured part of it. This marked the beginning of a struggle which was not decided in our favour until the 3d of September when we captured Guillemont.

During all this period there were numerous local attacks in which our lines were pushed steadily forward and many important positions captured. Thus the ridge above Martinpuich and Pozieres windmill was reached,—positions which gave us observation over Martinpuich and Courcelette, and the enemy gun positions around Le Sars. The fierceness of the fighting in these attacks may be gathered from the fact that one regiment of the German Guards Reserve Corps, opposite Moquet Farm, lost 1,400 men in fifteen days.

THE TANKS APPEAR

On September 12th a heavy, methodical bombardment of the enemy lines began, which culminated in a general allied infantry attack on September 15th. It was in this attack that the new heavily armoured cars, known as "tanks," were brought into action for the first time, successfully co-operating with the infantry and giving valuable help in breaking down enemy resistance. The advance met with immediate success. At 8.40 A. M. tanks were seen waddling into Flers followed by large numbers of troops. Martinpuich and Courcelette both fell—the latter into the hands of the Canadians. The general result of this new attack was a greater gain than had occurred in the course of a single operation since the offensive started. In one day we had broken through

two of the enemy's main defensive systems, had advanced on a front of over six miles to an average depth of a mile and captured 4,000 prisoners.

Tanks made of lath and plaster were left on the skyline during this offensive and succeeded in drawing a furious artillery fire.

THE FOURTH DIVISION IN THE TRENCHES

In the second week in August, 1916, the Fourth Canadian division arrived at Havre from whence it entrained to the Ypres salient. After the usual week of instructional work the division took over the line being vacated by another Canadian division which was about to proceed to the Somme. The Fourth division broke into trench warfare on September 16th–17th by carrying out an elaborate raid in which seven large parties took part with complete success.

On September 21st the Fourth division left the peace and quiet of the salient and proceeded to a training area. On October 3d the division entrained for the Somme and in due course arrived at the Brickfields at Albert in the Somme area, going into the line on October 12th.

Since July 1st the battle of the Somme had been proceeding with varying success. The offensive begun by the British on a twenty-five-mile front had broken through on only an eight-mile front and this sector the British had been pounding wider and deeper with a bull-dog tenacity that was designed to break the heart of the enemy.

The Somme offensive, as has been seen, consisted in reality of a tremendous series of battles in which the hundreds of thousands of soldiers involved were aided by staggering quantities of guns, mortars and mine throwers. England was at last a first-class military power and intended to show that she could smash the German lines when provided with the requisite materials. In the south the French were close to Peronne while the British steadily forged their way ahead to Bapaume.

The methods of offensive were simple. Several days before the proposed date of launching any attack the batteries, side by side and firing in the open, proceeded to pound the German front. Trenches were flattened out, wonderful fortresses of concrete and steel shattered and barbed wire entanglements cut to pieces.

Ever since the Canadian corps had arrived on the Somme in early September they had composed part of the huge battering-ram which hammered away continuously at the enemy defences. In general the progress made by the Canadians by bitter fighting had been slow until the brilliant capture of Courcelette, on September 15th, by the Second Canadian division.

Much of the work of the First Canadian division consisted in making numerous subsidiary attacks, including unsuccessful ones on Kenora and Regina trenches. These attacks, though not always successful, enabled greater offensives going on at the same time at other parts of the line to achieve their objectives; they invariably meant the hardest kind of fighting and heavy casualties.

THE SECOND DIVISION IN THE BATTLE OF COURCELETTE

The Second Canadian division, which it will be remembered played such a magnificent part in the desperate struggle for the craters at St. Eloi, played a prominent rôle on the Somme.

The battle at Courcelette is to the Second division what Ypres was to the First division. It was a magnificent and brilliant offensive.

On September 15th a thousand guns opened up in the final great bombardment. As the Canadians left their trenches and plodded slowly behind the barrage that churned the ground in front of them, the enemy machine guns and counter-barrage raked huge gaps in their ranks, but the men of the attacking brigades advanced as steadily as though on parade. Preceded by "tanks"—their first appearance on the front—the village and its defences were taken and the position consolidated. The tanks did good work in enfilading trenches, routing out machine-gun nests and inspiring fear in the heart of the enemy. The German counter-attacks all failed to retake the position and their losses were very heavy.

Next day the division attempted to extend its frontage and capture additional German trenches and redoubts which were necessary to hold the newly won position.

In this attack the Fifth brigade, which had been so successful the day before, was decimated and two battalions were saved from destruction only by the intervention of the Fourth battalion.

This division later on made an unsuccessful attack on the Kenora and Regina Trench systems with heavy losses.

An attack by the Third division on Sunken Road Trench and the Fabrik Graben was successful in achieving its object. This division was also concerned with one of the unsuccessful attacks on the redoutable Regina Trench. In this fierce struggle the Forty-ninth battalion, the P. P. C. L. I.'s and the R. C. R.'s lost heavily, the Royal Canadian Regiment mustering at the close of the engagement only eighty-one rifles, while the Forty-ninth had lost fifty per cent of its effectives.

On September 25th a further general attack was launched on the whole front between Martinpuich and the Somme. In this advance Morval and Les Boeufs were taken, while the French to the south carried the village of Rancourt and Fregicourt. Combles thus surrounded was entered by both the British and French at the same time on September 26th. Gueudecourt was taken the same day.

On the same date, September 26th, a general attack was launched against Thiepval and the Thiepval Ridge. The objectives included the fortress known as the Zollern Redoubt, the Stuff Redoubt and the Schwaben Redoubt. This attack was a brilliant success, some 2,300 prisoners being added to the total by this operation in which the Second Canadian brigade of the First division played a notable part.

The Zollern Redoubt at Moquet Farm was the key to the entire chain of redoubts extending from Courcelette to Thiepval. Every device known to military science had been lavished by the enemy on that work, and much bloody fighting, extending over several weeks, had failed to dislodge the Hun. The Zollern Redoubt was in turn protected by the Stuff Redoubt and Hessian Trench systems. After an intensive bombardment of several hours the Canadians attacked at the same time the British were timed to attack Thiepval. A desperate hand-to-hand struggle then ensued in which cold steel came into play, and the Zollern Redoubt and Hessian Trench both remained firmly in Canadian hands.

On October 7th the offensive was renewed and various points along the front were attacked and captured, including Le Sars.

THE FOURTH DIVISION TAKES REGINA TRENCH.

On October 21st the Fourth Canadian division made an attack on the Stuff and Regina Trenches which up to that time had

defied all the efforts of the Canadians to take. Two-thirds of the trench attacked was quickly taken and consolidated with small losses to the Canadians. The other third of Regina Trench was subsequently unsuccessfully attacked four days later, but on November 10th the offensive was resumed, and at four o'clock next morning the last of this famous trench, which had cost hundreds of Canadian lives to capture, remained firmly in the hands of the Fourth division.

Desire Trench, another hard proposition, was also captured and consolidated by the Fourth division, bringing to a brilliant close the Canadian operations on the Somme.

Thus the Fourth, like each of the other Canadian divisions, when its turn came made good, and established the right to take its place alongside the other war-battered divisions from Canada.

No brief outline such as has been here attempted can pretend to give any conception of the magnificent courage and heroism displayed by Canadian troops. Fighting over ground torn with shells, wrecked and broken trenches and entangled barbed wire; in mud and filth; amid a continuous hail of rifle and machine gun bullets and showers of shrapnel, each engagement exacted its heavy toll of dead and wounded. Only when some master of language takes up the theme, and with brain aflame with the heroic grandeur of their deeds, will justice be done to the glorious achievements of our Canadian boys during their "blood baths of the Somme," in which 22,000 casualties were sustained.

FINAL STAGE

On the 9th of November the long spell of bad weather took a turn for the better. On November 13th our troops attacked from the east of the Schwaben Redoubt to the north of Serre. In the St. Pierre Division area 1,400 prisoners were taken by one division at a loss of 600 casualties and all of the objectives south of the Ancre River were easily attained. To the north of the river the resistance was stronger. On the second day Beaucourt was taken and our front steadily carried forward up the slopes of the Beaumont Hamel spur. By this operation we had secured the command of the Ancre Valley on both sides of the river where it entered the enemy lines.

This brought the battle of the Somme to a close. The main

objects of the offensive had been attained. Verdun had been relieved; the main German forces had been held on the western front, and the enemy's strength had been very considerably worn down. The battle of the Somme, carried out largely under the direction of Sir Henry Rawlinson, brought us a long step forward towards the final victory of the allied cause. Four-fifths of the total number of enemy divisions engaged on the western front, constituting half of the whole German army, were thrown one after another into the Somme battle, some of them twice and some three times. Towards the end, when the weather made further attacks impossible, the German power of resistance had very seriously diminished.

The total number of prisoners taken by us in the great Somme offensive amounted to 38,000 including 800 officers. We also captured 29 heavy guns, 96 field guns and field howitzers, 136 trench mortars and 514 machine guns. And this was accomplished by troops who had been raised and trained during the war, many of them gaining their first experience of war in this offensive.

There never was a higher test of the endurance and resolution of British infantry and it upheld the highest traditions of the British race. The defences assaulted were more formidable than many of the most famous fortresses in history; without the thorough preparation by efficient artillery work they would have remained impregnable. It is, therefore, a remarkable tribute to the adaptability of the British soldier that, in spite of the shortness of training period, the junior officers and men attained a high degree of tactical skill.

THE WAR ON THE EASTERN FRONT

In May, 1916, Cadorna was being hard pressed by the Austrians, the battle of Verdun was in full swing and the army of Great Britain was almost ready for the great Somme offensive. Russia was also ready for the combined allied offensive which was to test the power of the Austro-German armies to the breaking point. It became clear, however, that Italy might be pressed beyond her limit of resistance and it was, therefore, decided to advance the date of the Russian attack in order to relieve the strain upon her.

At the beginning of June the total enemy strength from Pripet southward was under a million men, with a total of 600,000 rifles. The Russian southern army opposite the Austrian force was com-

manded by Brussilov, who had proved to be a wonderful general. Under him on the 300-mile front from Pripet to Rumania were four armies with which he designed to attack the Austrian line where he had discovered it to be weak.

On June 3d Brussilov began a slow methodical wire-cutting bombardment of the whole front. Twelve hours later the Russians passed through the lanes which had been cut and entered the Austrian trenches on a thirty-mile front between Lutsk and Rovno. Lutsk was taken with great booty, and the Styr and Ikva Rivers crossed. The flanks were then broadened out so that by June 13th a huge semicircle some seventy-five miles across the base had been hollowed out of the Austrian front.

RUSSIA DEFEATS AUSTRIA

By June 16th General Brussilov's armies had advanced fifty miles, captured Dubno and Lutsk and reached the Galician frontier. He had taken 70,000 prisoners, 53 guns, and huge quantities of war materials. Hindenburg did his best to send troops to the aid of the Austrian army for their counter-attack which opened on June 16th. The counter-attack by von Linsenger was designed to stay Brussilov's triumphant advance and create a pause in which the rest of the Austrian front could be reorganized. He succeeded only in postponing the Russian advance for a fortnight.

On June 4th the Russian General Lechitsky also broke through the Austrian line at Okna and in nine days captured 757 officers, 38,000 other ranks and 49 guns. By June 23d he had overrun a whole province, taking 4,000 officers, 194,000 men, 219 guns and 644 machine guns. It constituted one of the most rapid and spectacular advances in the annals of warfare. It was the first time that the Russians had been on anything like terms of equality in regard to artillery and munitions. The marvellous Russian infantry under the masterly skill of Brussilov had won a victory that would, with fair luck, win a strategic decision.

As a result of the June offensive the Russians had driven two great wedges into Volhynia and Bukowina. The Russian front had now to be straightened out and when the German counter-attack on the Stokhod in the second half of June died away, Brussilov began his attack. On July 4th the offensive began and succeeded beyond all expectations so that the Austrian retreat became a rout.

In four days an advance of twenty-five miles on a front of forty miles was made, and 12,000 prisoners, 45 guns and much military material had been taken. The enemy resistance then hardened along the marshy Stokhod River and a determined effort was made to prevent any further advance towards the important centre of Kovel about twenty miles away. Brussilov thereupon announced his intentions with regard to the capture of Kovel and made plans for an attack elsewhere.

The enemy was now about to make a powerful attack against the southern side of the Lutsk salient which he hoped would drive Brussilov's armies from Volhynia. The German attack for which twenty divisions were being concentrated was staged for July 18th but Brussilov, getting information of the exact time, launched his attack three days before. Again the Russians were victorious and 12,600 men and 30 guns were added to the Russian bag. Four days later another 12,000 Austrian prisoners were gathered in, while on July 28th still another 14,000 were captured, together with the city of Brody.

The Russian army kept on advancing, and along the line stretching from the Dniester to the Carpathians the Austrian position collapsed with the loss of many thousands of prisoners. As a consequence of all these defeats the Austro-German army was compelled to retreat to a new line. In ten weeks the Russian drive had compelled the enemy to lengthen his front by a hundred miles. The Russians had also taken 300,000 prisoners, while the enemy dead and wounded probably amounted to half a million.

During this offensive the Germans made desperate efforts to re-enforce the crumbling army of their ally and combed the western front for re-enforcements, while at least seven divisions were attracted from the Italian front where the counter-offensive of Cadorna was in progress. As a consequence of this disaster practically all of the chief Austrian commanders were replaced by Germans and the organization of the Central Powers was tested to the limit to save the situation. Von Hindenburg was placed in supreme command of all the German and Austrian armies on the eastern front, and desperate efforts were made to restore the morale of the Austrian troops.

The Russian army, on the other hand, had become a wonderful modern weapon capable of handling the machine-like army of

its antagonist. The Russian Chief of Staff Alexeiev, the General Officer Commanding Brussilov and the four army commanders had all shown military qualities of extraordinarily high character, and their brain-work was as much responsible for the Russian success as the marvellous fighting ability of the Russian soldier.

RUMANIA ENTERS THE WAR

For two years Rumania had managed to steer the middle course of neutrality, though pressure had been brought to bear upon her to cast in her lot with Germany. Rumania consists of two rich provinces, Moldavia on the east and Wallachia on the west, with Transylvania projecting into them.

The Rumanian King, Carolus, of German blood and at one time a German army officer, had naturally been in favour of the Central Powers, but the feeling of his country was against them. He died in October, 1914, and was succeeded by his nephew, Ferdinand, who had married a grand-daughter of Queen Victoria. King Ferdinand considered his country's interests impartially, and his wife was openly pro-ally.

In October, 1914, the Rumanian prime minister had evidently received from Russia an offer of Transylvania in return for her neutrality. In January, 1915, when Russia advanced into Austria it looked as though Rumania would enter the war on the allied side. Her reserves were called up and Great Britain lent her $5,000,000 but she needed munitions and there was no possibility of getting them except from Russia, which was also short. The Dardanelles venture failed, Russia retreated and Rumania again marked time until a more favourable opportunity should arise. Both Britain and Austro-Germany were sold cereals during this period by Rumania in her endeavour to keep clear of trouble.

On June 4, 1916, the Russians again began their advance, and on July 1st France and Great Britain commenced the great Somme offensive. Rumania's opportunity again seemed to be approaching; Austria was depleted of men by the Russian offensive and three Bulgarian armies were held by Sarrail at Salonika. By the middle of July the preliminaries had been settled with the Allies and munitions had begun to arrive from Russia. On August 27th Rumania declared war on Austria, Italy declared war on Germany, and next day Germany declared war on Rumania.

The entrance of Rumania added an army of half a million men to the Allies. But Germany had calculated on Rumania's entrance and was prepared for it. Germany counted on making an attack on the new ally that would compel Russia and the western Allies to send help to her and thus disorganize their offensives elsewhere. Rumania, instead of digging in and assuming the defensive rôle until the situation had improved for her cut loose and made a rapid advance into Transylvania. That provided the opportunity Germany was looking for, and after a remarkably brief campaign the Rumanians were crushed in a combined Austro-German-Bulgarian attack.

General Von Falkenhayn, co-operating with Von Mackensen, cut the main line running to Bucharest at Craiova. The Dobrudja region was over-run and the central Rumanian plain open to German advance. The seat of government was transferred from Bucharest to Jassy on November 28, 1916, and on December 6th Bucharest was entered by Von Mackensen.

CHAPTER XIX

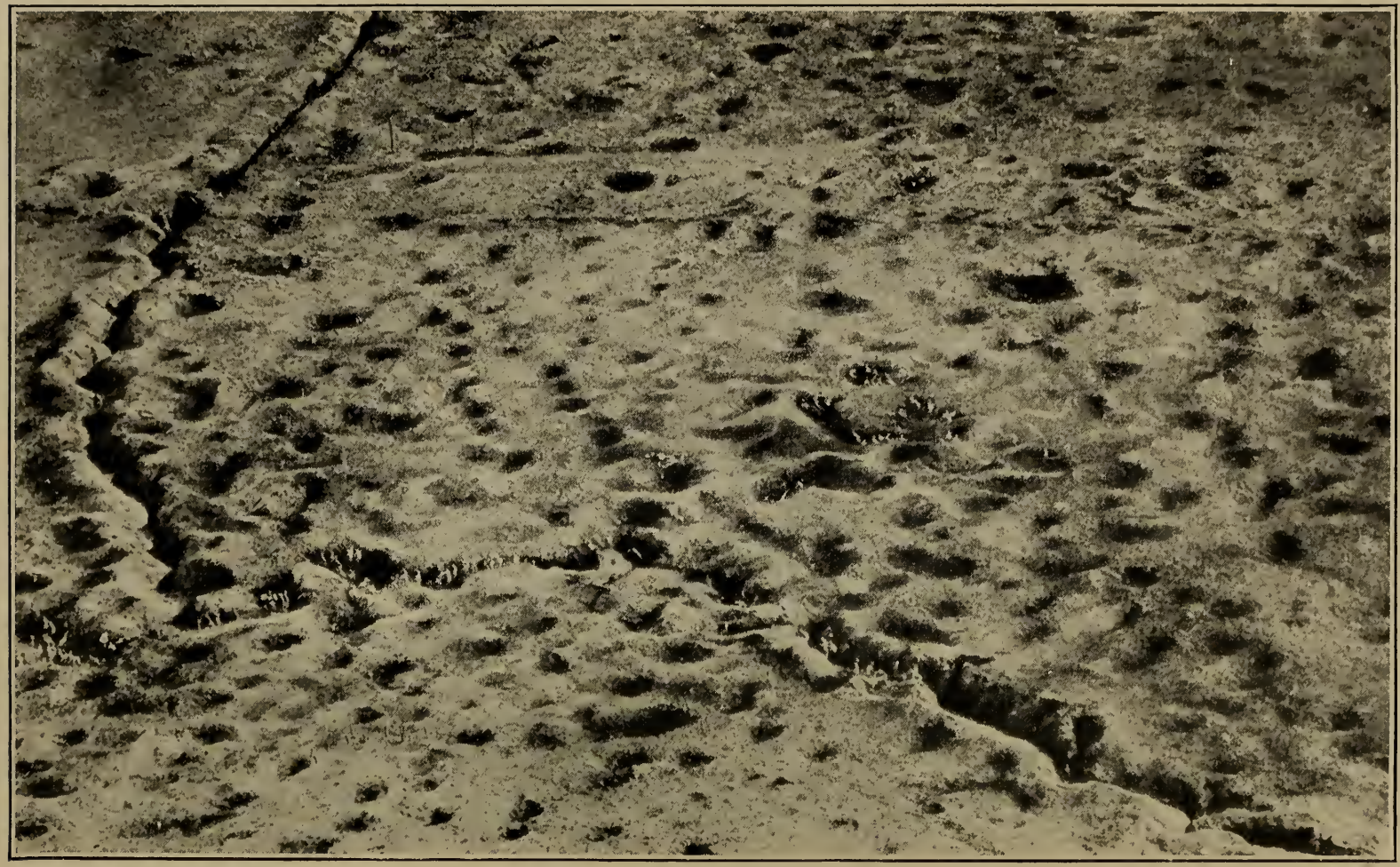
German Methods of Kultur

It may have been no part of the original German plan to ravage Belgium. Had the little country been peaceable and friendly to the invaders all might have gone well with her. The German lines of communication passed through Belgium and they did not wish to waste any considerable part of their fighting troops in guarding them. When Belgium proved hostile German methods were at once set in motion. Military governors were appointed, fines were levied, German currency was employed, clocks were set to German time and everything done to convince the Belgian people that they were a conquered race. The Belgians obstinately refused to be convinced of their defeat. On the contrary, their army of 120,000 men, sheltered behind the forts of Antwerp, marched out and on August 23d drove the Germans from Malines.

The beginning of the offensive was the beginning of a reign of terror in Belgium without parallel in the history of civilized warfare. Belgium was a hive of industry, its fields were tilled like gardens, its little cities were full of precious tokens of the stormy past and the industrious present. Some of the finest stone and brickwork of the Flemish Renaissance was found there and whole streets and towns had apparently come intact from the fifteenth century. Ancient church spires with their famous chimes rose high over the flat landscape, and in town and hamlet alike were masterpieces of Flemish tapestry and painting.

Louvain, the chief university town of Belgium, with its town hall of miraculous architecture and university containing a library full of manuscripts of untold value, and with its Church of St. Peter full of treasures of painting and carving, was systematically looted, its buildings sprayed with paraffin and set on fire.

Malines, a city second only in fame to that of Louvain, was also bombarded and set on fire. Termonde, a city containing many paintings by Van Dyke and Rubens, housed in treasures



French Official Photograph.

A BATTLE SEEN FROM THE CLOUDS

An airman's view of the advance of allied infantry after a bombardment on the Somme. Soldiers can be seen moving forward up the trench system and occupying the shell holes which pock-mark this much-fought-over ground.

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CANADIANS FIX BAYONETS IN READINESS FOR A CHARGE ON THE SOMME

The breathless nerve-racking moment before the great adventure of going over the top in a glorious charge against the enemy.

of architecture, met the same fate, being literally levelled to the ground. Hundreds of little villages were laid waste by systematic bombardment and thoroughly looted. Most of this vandalism had no military purpose. The looting of the Belgian cities would not have been possible had it not been permitted and instigated by officers in command, for the German soldier is too well drilled to disobey his superior officer.

France suffered in like manner from the wanton exponents of German Kultur. The great industrial region of France was along the northern borders invaded by the Germans. In 1912, of the total steam machinery in France amounting to 3,325,000 horsepower, 1,250,184 horsepower was to be found in the invaded region. The great mines at Lens, the linen of Roubaix, Tourcoing and Lille, the woolens of St. Quentin, the steel of Isbergue, the glass of St. Gobain, the woolens and wines of Rheims and many other industries were to be found in that region. Lille and its neighbour cities of Roubaix and Tourcoing, with a joint population of half a million people, was the home of great woolen, cotton, linen, machinery and chemical industries.

When Germany invaded that district she began a system of wholesale pillage. All stocks of raw materials and finished articles in the mills and storehouses were first taken. Then the leather belting, copper and brass fittings were removed together with such looms and machinery as were wanted in Germany. In one factory, to obtain eighteen francs worth of brass 400 spindles worth 8,000 francs were removed; 2,250,000 pounds of copper and brass were taken from the industrial factories of Turcoing alone.

Lille had possessed nine-tenths of the linen industry of France and one-sixth that of the whole world. A certain accredited expert of the German Government, Herr Rover, arrived in Lille and when he was through there was nothing left of the Lille linen factories but the bare walls.

The woolen mills of Tourcoing and Roubaix were also robbed of their looms, the obvious intention being to destroy the French industry and make Germany pre-eminent.

The breweries of Lille and the sugar refineries were also stripped and the great chemical industry of Kuhlman covering twenty-five hectares of ground utterly gutted. In the industrial suburb of Fines, the great locomotive construction workshops, 750

electric motors and even the steel building 480 feet by 90 feet, were dismantled and despatched to Germany. Some machines too heavy to move were destroyed by battering them with a huge piece of steel swung from a travelling crane, while others were torn from their concrete emplacements by the use of the same crane. The damage to tools and machinery in this one shop amounted to $8,000,000.

In the Lens mining region mines were flooded and superstructures and machinery wrecked so that that great industry has been crippled for years to come.

It has been stated that in France, through the war and German occupation, 500,000 buildings were damaged and 250,000 destroyed; $2,000,000,000 worth of damage was done to public works; 1,000 industrial plants supporting 500,000 persons destroyed; 250,000 acres rendered uncultivable by the war; over $200,000,000 worth of coal mining machinery, $120,000,000 worth of cotton and linen machinery, $25,000,000 worth of sugar refining machinery, $50,000,000 worth of electric power machinery, $250,000,000 worth of brewing machinery and $150,000,000 worth of machinery in foundries, etc., was destroyed.

The Germans broke every law, human or divine. The honourable traditions of arms were trampled upon in their brutal and licentious fury. Their insolence, which knew no pity and felt no love, was part of their system of civilization and lust of conquest; it was the result of an arrogance inculcated by the German Emperor, his military chiefs and his professors, which dragged the German name in the dust and left it a thing soiled, mutilated and despised by decent humanity.

Germany was the grandiose realization of Hegel's conception of the State-as-God. The army, which assured the State its power, therefore partook of its divine character. The army, as a sort of divinity, when it imagined it was aggrieved or humiliated, demanded expiation and sacrifice—the sacrifice of flourishing cities or bodies of men and women. Lacking one attribute even of the god of the savages—Justice—it made no distinction between the innocent and the guilty. The Teutonic gods of the past, so revered by the modern Hun, had been noteworthy chiefly for their qualities of savage lust and strength. The explosions of wrath of the German army, involving acts of brutal and capricious fury, which

heaped ruin upon ruin, sent whole cities towering skyward in flames, and demanded wholesale sacrifices of innocent blood in Belgium and France, seemed to be those of the reincarnated rude and savage gods of their German ancestors.

SINKING OF THE LUSITANIA

On May 7, 1915, the magnificent Cunard liner *Lusitania* was torpedoed by a German submarine off Kinsale, Ireland. The *Lusitania* had been a great favorite with the travelling public; she was beautifully fitted out and for a while held the record for crossing the Atlantic, her time being four days eleven hours and forty-two minutes—a record only since excelled by the *Mauretania* by one hour.

Consequently when she sailed from New York she carried as usual a large number of passengers—about 1,500 in all—and a crew of some 600, in spite of the notices which appeared in the New York papers and at the docks warning people not to travel by her on that trip.

The *Lusitania* was travelling at a speed of eighteen knots an hour—less than her usual speed of twenty-one knots—which would bring her at the Liverpool bar without stopping and within a couple of hours of high water. The weather was clear and all was running smoothly, when about a quarter after two the second officer saw a torpedo approaching and reported the same to Captain Turner, who also saw it. The vessel was struck amidships and the engines put out of commission. The bulkheads were ordered closed, but the *Lusitania* continued to list to starboard and in eighteen minutes went down.

The vessel was not being convoyed at the time. Nobody had dreamed that Germany would go to the length of torpedoing a passenger ship. Two other ships, the *City of Exeter* and *Narragansett*, received the S.O.S. call of the *Lusitania* and made attempts to reach the sinking vessel but were warned off by submarines.

The total number of lives lost when the ship went down was 1,198 of which 755 were passengers; 124 of these were Americans and included Charles Frohman, the noted theatrical manager; Klein, the dramatist; Elbert Hubbard, the writer; Forman, the author; Vanderbilt, the multimillionaire, and many other noted people.

Probably no other single act did so much to open the eyes of the neutral world to the character of the enemy we were fighting. Questions as to the use of poison gas, liquid fire and air raids might perhaps be debated, but as to the right of a combatant to destroy hundreds of innocent men, women and children without question there could be no doubt.

At the front it had a profound effect on our men and many a German might have been taken a prisoner who was thereafter given no opportunity to surrender. The hearts of the allied soldiers were hardened towards an enemy so incapable of pity. And when it became known that a medal had been struck two days before the *Lusitania* had been torpedoed, commemorating the event, men's hearts burned with a deep indignation that such deliberate brutality could be not only condoned but gloried in by any nation.

The *Lusitania* was the immediate cause of diplomatic correspondence between Washington and Germany, and proved to be the beginning of the series of events which brought America into the war.

Later on Germany cast all hesitation to the winds and entered upon a wholesale destruction of everything that floated on the high seas. Fleets of innocent fishermen were sunk by enemy submarine gunfire. Trawlers, tramps and sailing vessels, no matter where they came from and what their cargo, were sent to the bottom. Sometimes the crews were given warning and allowed to depart in their small boats, perhaps hundreds of miles from land. Many of these died of exposure. In other cases no warning was given and the ship was torpedoed or shelled. In numerous cases, certified to on oath, the small boats laden with the escaping crews and even survivors swimming in the water were fired upon by the German submarine crews. Cases have been proved where survivors were collected on the U-boat decks and then the latter deliberately submerged.

In one case a German submarine was captured by the British and her crew taken on board before a charge of explosive would send the submarine to the bottom. Sounds of tapping were fortunately heard in time and a number of British sailors locked in a chamber at one end of the submarine were released. The enemy even in the moment of having his own life saved was too con-

temptible to tell of his prisoners whom he would have allowed to go to their death.

It is true there were some exceptions like that of Weddigen, the submarine commander, but they were rare. Nowhere was the lack of decent tradition more noticeable than among the underwater thugs who seemed to form a considerable part of the U-boat personnel.

Plots against shipping were carried out with all the diabolical ingenuity possessed by the Germans. Most of these were engineered and carried out in the United States while it was still neutral.

Bombs were made, placed in cases and shipped as merchandise on sea-going ships. Four or five days afterwards, time clocks would cause them to explode and set the ship on fire. Four hundred bombs of this variety were made under the direction of a certain von Igel and thirty-three vessels sailing from New York alone were set on fire by them. Similar bombs were placed aboard vessels at New Orleans and other ports. Several of the guilty parties were arrested and sentenced for conspiracy.

Another device invented by Robert Fay, a German officer, was found to be capable of sinking a ship with only forty pounds of contained explosive. The same man and his accomplices were convicted of conspiracy to attach explosive bombs to the rudders of vessels with the intention of wrecking them at sea.

Other schemes included the mixing of high explosive, made up to resemble pieces of coal, with the coal used on board ships so that, on explosion they would wreck the boilers and cause the vessel to blow up. Nothing seemed too low or too contemptible for German agents to attempt in the way of destroying ships.

The understanding among the nations before the war was that mines should be anchored and should be of such a nature that they could never become a permanent menace to navigation. In other words, they were to be so constructed that they would, after a certain length of time, destroy themselves. Floating mines were absolutely forbidden. But, as in many other cases, Germany had her own set of Hague Convention rules and paid no attention to the official ones. She therefore sowed floating mines broadcast in the high seas about Great Britain and also manufactured a type of fixed mine that thus far shows absolutely no sign of deterioration.

Tramp steamers under neutral flags, trawlers and special mine-laying submarines deposited these dangerous eggs in huge numbers daily everywhere in the ocean. To offset this practice every suspicious stranger was boarded and examined by the men of our navy, while hundreds of mine sweepers worked away day and night sweeping up those dangerous weapons.

ZEPPELIN RAIDS

In accordance with their avowed policy of terrorizing the British, the Germans, after numerous threats of what they intended to do, began to carry out a series of Zeppelin raids on England. Their usual objective was London, but frequently they lost their bearings and scattered their huge bombs at random over the countryside.

The effect upon the British people was quite the reverse of that expected by the enemy. They felt they were at war and quite enjoyed the sensation of danger. During the first raids it was impossible to keep the populace off the streets of London. Gradually, however, commonsense prevailed, warnings by bugle were sounded half an hour before the raiders were expected, the audiences in theatres and concert halls were advised of the expected attack and the underground railway tubes and other funk-holes were officially recommended.

To see the brilliant white beams of giant searchlights sweeping across the skies, criss-crossing each other, darting from one cloud to another and plainly searching the heavens for the unwelcome interlopers was a never-to-be-forgotten sight.

London rapidly adopted a system of lighting designed to make its great area as inconspicuous as possible but the Zeppelins, apparently using the reflection of the Thames River for a guide, were able to locate its general situation.

Huge numbers of anti-aircraft guns were installed in the parks and suburbs of London and other centres so that when a raid was in progress it sounded like a real battle, the din being indescribable. The descent of the spent shrapnel and shell cases was a real danger to the unsheltered spectator.

The raids were a failure from all standpoints. They neither kept artillery, airplanes or anti-aircraft guns in England, nor did they intimidate the population. The authorities, backed by public

opinion, were not stampeded into by-paths but pursued their policy of steadily sending forward all available men, airplanes and material to the front.

Of course a good deal of damage was done, but London, pursuing its every-day occupation, was vastly amused at a Berlin description portraying the metropolis as a heap of ruins.

In all there were fifty-one raids by airships, causing the death of 498 civilians and the injury of 1,236. They were also responsible for the deaths of 58 soldiers and sailors and the injuring of 121.

There were also 59 airplane raids in which 619 civilians were killed and 1,650 injured. In these raids 238 soldiers and sailors were killed and 400 injured.

There were therefore a total of 110 raids and on an average there were 10 civilians and 3 soldiers and sailors killed in each raid.

The greatest losses inflicted by Zeppelins were in raids on Norfolk, Suffolk and the home counties of London on October 13, 1915, when 54 civilians and 17 soldiers and sailors were killed, and in West Suffolk and the Midland counties on January 31, 1916, when 70 civilians were killed and 112 injured. I had arrived that day in England enroute to France from six weeks' leave in Canada, and stopped off at Manchester to hear "As You Like It." The performance had gotten nicely under way when all the lights went out and it was announced that an air raid was in progress. Thereupon the Shakespearian players set to work to amuse the audience and rendered an excellent concert of readings, solos and choral numbers, chiefly old English ballads. After an hour and a half the audience was dismissed with an apology for the failure of the play. Just after the national anthem had been sung with great fervor a shrill female voice, from the top of the gallery, called out: "Are we downhearted?" to which the whole audience roared "No!" The incident was quite characteristic of the British people.

The most serious airplane raid was that of Margate, Essex and London on June 13, 1917, when 158 civilians and 4 sailors and soldiers were killed. The next in severity was that of Kent on September 4th of the same year when 131 soldiers and sailors lost their lives. On that occasion a crowded barrack was hit.

On May 25, 1917, an airplane raid on Folkestone caused the

death of 77 civilians and 18 sailors and soldiers. The attack on Kent, Essex and London on January 28, 1918, caused the death of 65 civilians and 2 soldiers and sailors.

NAVAL RAIDS

As described in a former chapter, part of the German fleet made two or three spasmodic attempts to bombard English defenceless towns. In only one of these, that on Hartlepool, Scarborough and Whitby on December 16, 1914, were the casualties heavy. In this bombardment 127 civilians and 10 soldiers and sailors were killed and 567 civilians and 25 soldiers and sailors injured. The remarkable thing about those naval raids was the coolness displayed by the civilian population and the large number of cases of bravery shown by both men and women.

To summarize, there were during the war 5,511 persons in England killed or injured, of whom 4,750 were civilians. The deaths numbered 1,570. Of those killed 554 were men, 411 were women and 295 were children. Whether this was a satisfactory record for five years of continuous effort for the nation which had officially adopted methods of terrorism, we have no means of knowing as yet.

EDITH CAVELL

Miss Edith Cavell, an English nurse working in Belgium hospitals, was arrested by the Germans on the charge of helping English, Belgian and French soldiers to escape. Letters from soldiers and civilians, thanking her for the aid given by her for helping in these escapes, were intercepted and constituted the main evidence against her.

Miss Cavell freely admitted that she had assisted these men; her whole bearing before, during and after the trial indicated that this gentle woman had the courage of a lion.

She was condemned to death on October 11, 1915.

No counsel was allowed to see her before the trial; no lawyer in Brussels would undertake her defence.

The American Minister to Belgium did what he could to avert the crime but without avail. In the eyes of the enemy, as stated subsequently by Zimmerman, the German Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs: "Men and women are equal before the law,

and only the degree of guilt makes a difference in the sentence for the crime and its consequences."

An Anglican clergyman was allowed to see her at ten o'clock that night and she was shot by a German firing squad at two o'clock on October 12, 1915.

It was about as stupid a thing as Germany had ever done. It intimidated no one but it sent over the whole world a wave of deep indignation and resentment that lasts to the present day. Patriotism was kindled afresh, recruiting was stimulated and the phrase, "Remember Edith Cavell," stirred our men on the front to fight with even greater determination and a more implacable spirit.

The body of Edith Cavell was brought to England from Belgium on a warship on May 15, 1919. It was transported on a gun carriage with military escort from Victoria Station to Westminster Abbey through streets packed with people; the impressive service was attended by the Royal Family and the great men and women of England.

CAPTAIN FRYATT

An equally stupid act was the murder of Captain Fryatt. This officer commanded the merchant vessel *Brussels*, owned by the Great Eastern Railway. On March 20, 1915, he was summoned by a German U-boat to stop, but instead the gallant captain turned at full speed and tried to ram the submarine, which narrowly escaped by diving. For his brave action he was presented with a gold watch by the mayor and people of Harwich.

On June 23, 1916, Captain Fryatt was captured by the Germans and taken to Zeebrugge. At Bruges he was court-martialled on the charge of attempting to ram the German submarine *U 33*, condemned to death and shot.

In this case German officers may have obtained a little brutal satisfaction, but they awakened such a fierce resentment among British sailors that the game of submarine hunting became almost a naval pastime so hated had the crews of German underwater craft become with their lack of fine traditions of the sea to which British sailors are born and brought up.

These two outstanding incidents together with the destruction of the *Lusitania* and the use of poison gases were probably

the most important in developing a deep resentment among the thinking people of the United States and ultimately bringing that nation into the war.

BOMBING OF HOSPITALS

Near the front there were excuses perhaps for bombing ambulances and casualty clearing stations. These were frequently close to military objectives such as railway stations, airplane hangars or ammunition dumps. But further back in areas like Etaples near Boulogne, where the British general hospitals were established—miles from the front—there was no such excuse.

On May 29, 1918, an airplane attack was made on a Canadian hospital at Etaples. Huge bombs went crashing through the roof wrecking the buildings and killing a large number of patients. The building caught fire and it proved exceedingly difficult to get patients out of the upper windows.

Then the enemy airplanes returned to the place and machine-gunned the rescuers, lighting up the area with flares which made everything as light as day. Among those killed were a number of nurses.

There were other instances just as clear-cut as the one narrated where there could not have been the slightest doubt as to the fact that the buildings bombed were hospitals.

Hospital ships were also deliberately sunk in the channel in spite of the agreement made with Germany. The enemy claimed that hospital ships were used for the transportation of troops, but this claim could easily have been disproved and was known to be untrue.

Soldiers crossing the English Channel who have ever seen a hospital ship in the darkness of night passing by in a blaze of light and with a huge electric cross on the side, shining out of the darkness like a magnificent cluster of diamonds, know that the torpedoing of such a vessel was intended to be a deliberate murder. Several hospital ships were so torpedoed with a considerable loss of life among wounded, disabled soldiers.

No method of deliberate frightfulness was more despicable than that which sent unarmed ships bearing wounded soldiers under the protection of the cross recognized as sacred throughout the civilized world to the bottom of the sea.

MINES

Clearing the North Sea of mines promises to be an endless task for British mine sweepers. The menace from these relics of German frightfulness extends from the east coast of England to the Scandinavian coast and is constantly dangerous to all sorts of shipping.

Instances of mines exploding on the coast of England fortunately have been few so far, but those that have drifted in have caused considerable damage. One mine that was discovered at the base of the cliffs at Ramsgate at low tide blew up after the tide rose and shattered windows in buildings on the cliffs over an area of more than a mile and a half.

Despite the fact that the mine was discovered it was considered unsafe even to touch it or make the slightest attempt to move it, because one of the horns was resting against a rock and to move it even a fraction of an inch meant an explosion.

When it is understood that the entire floor of the North Sea is carpeted with mines, which will remain a potential danger to shipping for years to come, some idea may be gleaned of the tasks that confront the mine sweepers. These drifters that are flirting continually with sudden and violent extermination are carrying on a drive for mines much after the manner of a Kansas jack-rabbit drive.

During the early part of 1917 the Germans had at least ten submarine mine-layers operating off the east coast of England. All of these mine-layers were capable of carrying at least twenty-four mines, each mine containing 500 pounds of highest explosive. In the Harwich area, upon which the submarine mine-layers concentrated for a time, three submarines were operating continually.

During the three months ended April 10, 1917, the Germans laid 300 mines in the Harwich area. Practically all these were swept up, and either were sunk to the bottom or exploded. There can be no accurate figures as to how many were exploded and how many sunk, but the proportion would undoubtedly be less than two per cent exploded.

All of the mines that were sunk go to the bottom and drift about with the tide, in many cases coming to rest against a sand bar, an old wreck, or some minor obstacle on the bottom of the

North Sea. It is safe to say that not one mile of the bed of the North Sea between England and Belgium is free from the menace.

POISON GASES

About five o'clock on April 22, 1915, the Germans launched their first gas attack upon the allied lines. The week before a deserter from the German lines in the Ypres salient had warned us of the impending attack but he was not believed.

The gas was discharged upon the French line to the left of the Canadians and in a few minutes the French Turcos, dazed and in a state of panic, were passing through our artillery lines. I happened to be present at the moment and saw the occurrence, which will be found described elsewhere.

The Turcos staggered into the ambulances, choking and coughing, with blood-shot eyes and many of them of a ghastly greenish colour. Many a time thereafter I saw, as I did that night, men by the hundred lying in rows in the hospitals, with faces of a blue, green or ashy grey appearance, choking, vomiting and gasping for air. Many of them died, literally from drowning, for their lungs filled with fluid and they died from asphyxiation.

It was another German idea which went wrong. For months they had been experimenting with chlorine gas near the Dutch border. Then liquid gas was brought into the trenches in cylinders and sunk in the parapet. When the wind was favourable and everything ready the cylinders were opened and the gas, under a pressure of about one hundred pounds to the square inch was projected into the air and carried towards the opposite trenches.

Of course the Germans accused the Allies of employing gas first as was their custom when undertaking any new diabolical practice. But the Allies did not use gas until the following autumn, when its continued use by the Germans compelled retaliatory methods.

Doubtless the enemy expected to break the British line, but, as has happened before and since, they seemed so incapable of seizing upon and making use of a success that their grand opportunity went by. They had broken the allied line clean. Had they poured through the breach and rolled up our flanks the Channel ports would have been theirs for the taking. But German

caution and German thoroughness lost them their great opportunity. All the German authorities gained was the universal execration of the whole civilized world and, later on, the curses of the German soldiers, for the Allies became more expert in the use of gas than their German teachers.

DEPORTATION OF WOMEN

In April, 1916, the Germans seized and sent away from Lille, Roubaix and Tourcoing about 20,000 women.

They were taken from all classes of homes, collected by night in churches and sent—no one knew whither. The Germans said that they were to work on farms, but there is little doubt that they were employed at everything down to that most offensive and menial of all jobs, the German officer's slave.

The news made French men and women turn white with impotent rage, for they were absolutely powerless to do anything.

In April, 1919, a petition prepared by Madame Calmette and Mrs. Roosevelt, signed by 1,500 women, was handed to the Peace Conference. It said:

> In spite of the most elementary laws of humanity, thousands of women, girls and children of every condition were systematically abducted from their families and were forced to submit to the most odious treatment. We women of France, with bleeding and broken hearts, demand justice from the Peace Conference on behalf of our martyred sisters.
>
> To prevent such crimes from ever being perpetrated again, we demand that those guilty of them be punished like ordinary criminals. We trust you will exact full justice from Germany and her allies. We are nearing the anniversary of the day, April 23, 1916, when that odious deed, against which the women of all nations protest, was carried out, and we firmly trust another year will not elapse before the guilty are punished, both those who issued the order from Berlin and those who executed it in the most brutal way.

Is it little wonder that France, at the Peace Conference, demanded strong guarantees that would lay the German spectre for another century?

CHAPTER XX

Canadian Corps Captures Vimy Ridge

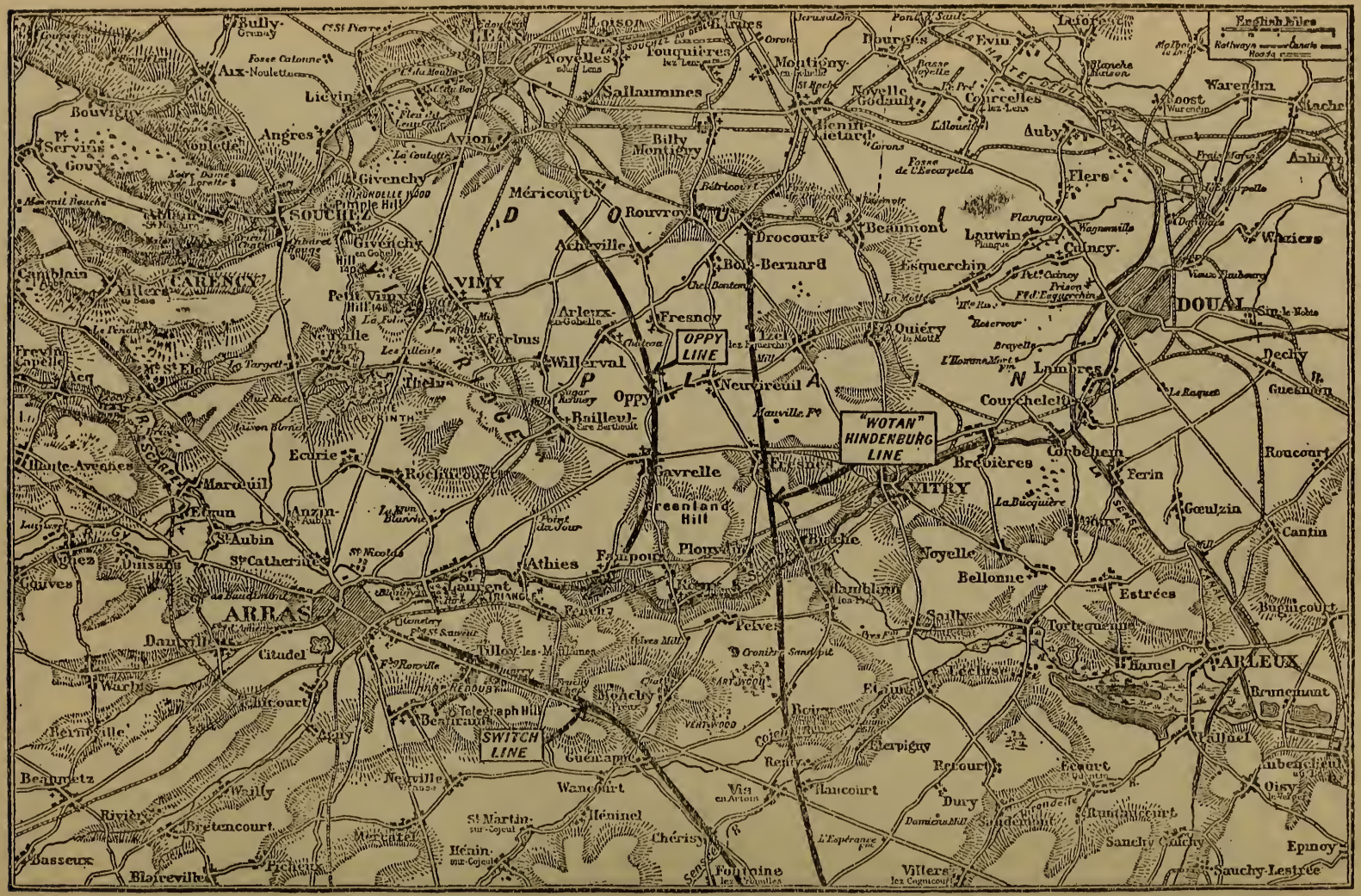
The capture of Vimy Ridge is said to have been the most perfectly organized and successful battle of the whole war. It was worked out on a model and proved to be a model of a successful limited offensive.

The battle took months to prepare and every possible care was taken by the high command to eliminate every possibility of error and to make, in so far as possible, everything favor the Canadian attacking forces.

In the summer of 1916 the Canadians on the Somme had abundantly proved themselves to be successful offensive fighters. It was there decided that the stretch of country from Arras northward, including the bastion of Vimy Ridge, should be the next section attacked. After their Somme experience the battered and weary Canadian corps was moved up to the Vimy front along the line from Ecurie to Souchez. There they spent the late autumn and winter of 1916 on a fairly quiet though muddy sector.

For months the staffs worked away on maps, plans and defences of an attack which was to take place in the spring on this new Canadian front. At the end of the year the four Canadian divisions were withdrawn to distant rest billets. There, day after day for periods of from three to five weeks, the troops were drilled over ground as similar as possible to that of Vimy ridge. During that training the individual soldier knew not only that an attack was impending but he knew the particular piece of ground over which he was to attack. Maps, aerial photographs of the enemy positions, lengthy descriptions of the Hun defences and minute descriptions as to the use of every weapon from hand bombs to the 9.45 "flying pig" trench mortars were distributed to officers and men.

With the aid of maps the engineers laid out on the fields long white tapes to represent exactly the lay of the enemy trenches. By means of coloured flags stuck in the ground, dugouts, machine-



AREA OF THE FIGHTING of THE OLD GERMAN FORTRESS FRONT, BETWEEN LENS AND ARRAS, APRIL 9 TO 14, 1917.
Showing Vimy Ridge, the scene of the great fight

gun posts, minenwerfer positions and other interesting points in the Hun lines were shown.

By the exercise of a little imagination the soldier could stand in the fields on the tape that represented the Canadian front line and "jumping off" place. He could then walk forward over the fields, getting clearly pictured in his mind from the tapes and flags the whole layout of the Hun defences which he was destined to be soon attacking. Each battalion had its ground laid out for it in this fashion, and day after day the battalions did their mimic attack over the fields.

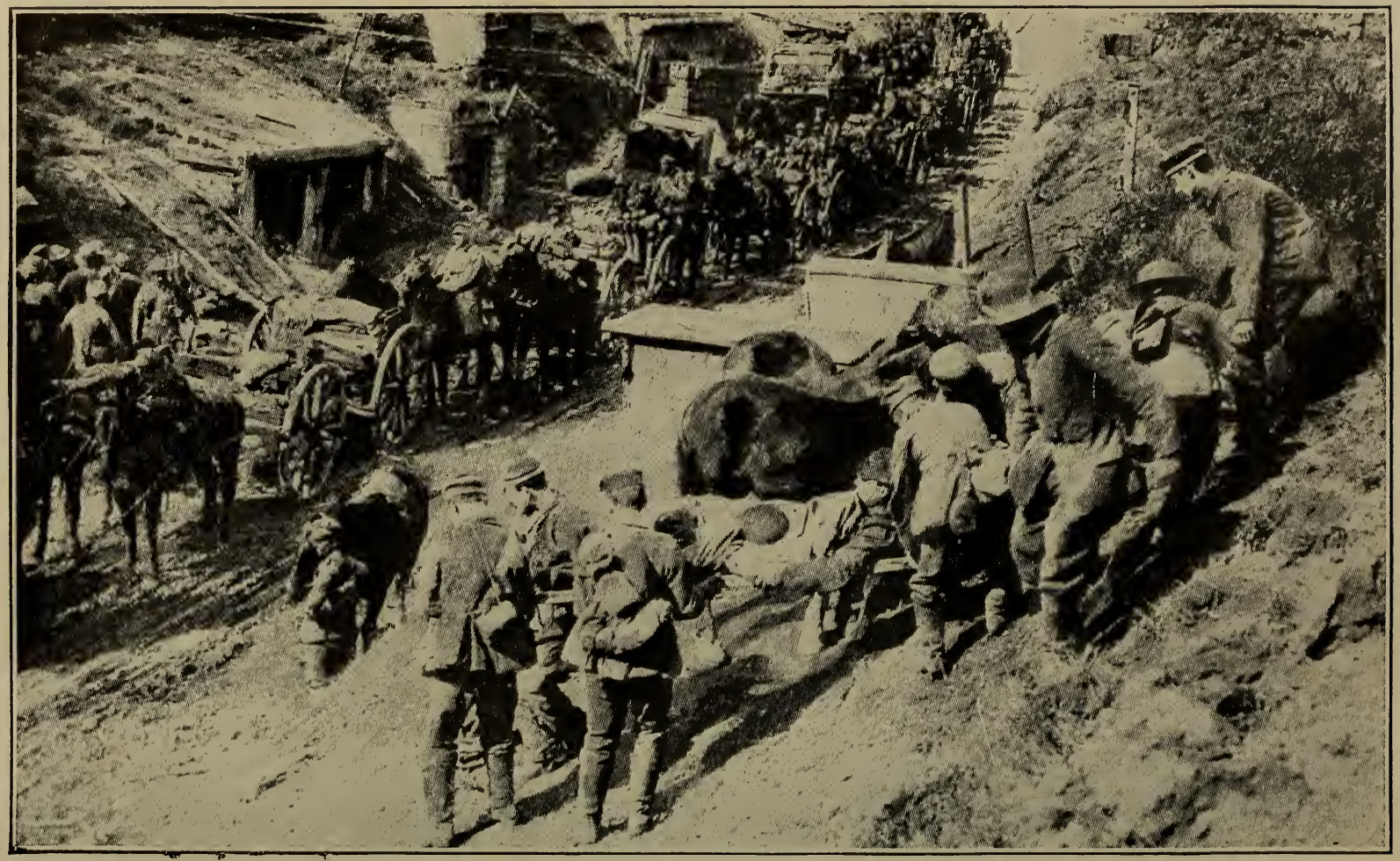
The guns meanwhile were coming in up the line. In the darkness of night field guns and howitzers were dragged forward into their prepared pits and covered over. Vast quantities of ammunition began to fill the gullies and ditches while great dumps grew along the hedges and roadsides. Close to the line hundreds of dumps were prepared where small-arm ammunition, bombs and flares were stored. The ordnance service pushed up as close as possible with vast stores of bayonets, wire cutters, clothing, water bottles and other equipment. The medical corps opened stations in every ruined cellar or dugout it could claim and filled them with bandages and stretchers.

When the trained and rested infantry returned they scarcely knew their old quarters. Numerous neat trenches and plank roads replaced poor, untidy ditches. Where there had been a single gun firing furtively from behind a hedge there were scores of guns scattered all over the district. There were also some monstrous, squat, toad-like guns the like of which had never been seen before. The whole countryside appeared to be covered with dumps, bomb stores and war material, while tens of thousands of shells were piled up everywhere. The area was seething with secret but wondrous activity.

The irregular contours of Vimy Ridge dominated the comparatively flat lands of the Artois between Thelus and Avion, the outskirts of Lens, a distance of about 8,000 yards. It was a naturally strong defensive position converted by the Germans into an almost impregnable bastion, one of the strongest points in their entire system of defences between the Swiss frontier and the sea. Its slopes were laced by deep belts of wire protected by countless machine guns housed in concrete emplacements. Deep tunnels

ON VIMY RIDGE, WHERE CANADA WON LAURELS

The Canadians took the important position of Vimy Ridge on Easter Monday, April 9, 1917. They advanced with brilliance, having taken the whole system of German front-line trenches between dawn and 6.30 A. M. This shows squads of machine gunners operating from shell-craters in support of the infantry on the plateau above the ridge.



AFTER THE BATTLE

Canadian transport thronging a sunken road just captured from the Germans. On the left are German dugouts, and on the right are German prisoners employed in bringing in our wounded.

connected the reserve depots in the back country with the forward positions on the ridge, and also with the dugouts—huge excavations in some cases large enough to hold a battalion.

Earlier French and British attacks on the ridge had failed with terrible losses and the Germans were partly justified in their belief that the position was impregnable. This belief the British were unwilling to admit and now, equipped with every mechanical device of warfare, were ready to demonstrate that there was no German system of defence that could not be taken.

The plans involved an attack on a front of twelve miles by four army corps, thirty-eight battalions of which were Scottish. The Vimy Ridge position was confronted by Sir Julian Byng's Canadian corps and one British brigade.

From the third week of March the guns never ceased barking by day or night. Peering over the parapet or through a periscope the infantryman could see the German trenches, laid out as he had seen them back at Houdain, but erupting in pillars of earth and smoke and being obliterated by the deluge of high explosive shells which continuously whistled and whispered overhead. The artillery preparation for the infantry attack was thorough and the whole of the area to be attacked was heaving from the bursts of tens of thousands of shells.

Back at Canadian headquarters all of the preliminary work had been thoroughly co-ordinated and final plans worked out. Every divisional commander had voluminous instructions as to what he was expected to do, and each of his brigadiers, colonels and junior officers knew exactly what was expected of him.

At 5.30 A. M. on April 9th—Easter Monday—a thousand guns opened with a terrific crash upon the German front line. From that moment the earth rocked with the concussion of the artillery discharges and the whole enemy position was wreathed in the flame and smoke of bursting shells, while a snow-storm raged over the battlefields.

There was nothing new in the system of attack except in the perfection of the artillery barrage. Each unit was to advance strictly over the piece of country selected for it, while shell curtains timed to advance in front of it would protect the advancing troops.

Wonderful counter battery work was done and battery after

battery of the enemy was put out of action, located partly by direct observation from the air and partly by the new device for sound identification. The air fighting on some of the preceding clear spring days had been of the most desperate character. The Germans in a determined effort to keep us from maintaining our aerial supremacy fought valiantly and accounted for forty-eight of our planes, while they themselves lost forty-six. It was an epoch-making week for the air force and the enemy remained blinded.

When the signal was given the Canadians leaped from their trenches and trudged imperturbably over the shell torn ground after the barrage. The ill-directed fire of the enemy guns in answer to the frantic S.O.S. calls for help was much less effective than the sleet of bullets from rifles and machine guns. Men fell right and left but the advance continued relentlessly. Enemy gun crews and snipers fought to the death, expecting no mercy and receiving none. Mopping-up parties systematically cleared out dugouts and prisoners taken were handed back to the Canadian lines. The enemy refused to stand and fight with the bayonet, a sign that his morale was going. A certain proof of this was furnished by the fact that machine gunners were found chained to their guns. The first, second and successive lines were reached on schedule time, captured and consolidated. The peculiarity of the battle of Vimy Ridge was the number of smaller engagements which took place in the main operation. Practically every company, within certain limits, fought its own fight in its own way and won its victory independently. One of the great reasons for success was the rapidity of the allied advance. From the German point of view the battle seemed to consist of a curtain of shells which suddenly deluged their trenches, and beyond that curtain was another curtain creeping forward slowly, deliberately and relentlessly across "No Man's Land."

Then as that second curtain reached their position it suddenly lifted and the Canadian and British troops were upon them. There was no time for organization or defence; those in the deep dugouts, serenely unconscious of impending disaster, were given their first intimation that an attack was under way by the appearance of mopping-up parties, well loaded with bombs. By April 11th the whole of Vimy Ridge was securely in Canadian hands, together

with 4,000 prisoners and a large number of guns which General Byng formed into a "first, second and third Pan-German group."

Vimy Ridge proved, as all other engagements before and since have proved, that, man for man, the Canadian had nothing to fear from personal contact with the enemy. The second battle of Ypres proved that humanity was greater than metal! Vimy Ridge proved that some races of humanity are distinctly inferior to others. It confirmed the conviction of those who before the war believed that the individuality of a peaceful population, strengthened and developed by loyalty, was better fighting material than a military ridden country could ever produce.

And it showed that thereafter, given equality of men and metal, the issue of any battle would never be in doubt, even when, as the following report issued by the German headquarters, and taken from a captured German officer showed, the enemy knew exactly what preparations were being made and was prepared for the attack:

79th Reserve (German) Division — Headquarters
1 a-01 477–170–S. — 30/3/17

RÉSUMÉ OF SITUATION

On both sides of Arras and on the northern flank of the Siegfried Line there is a very marked concentration of British troops. An equal concentration of French troops has been noticed on the southern flank of the Siegfried Line (Drocourt-Queant Line) in the Eisenlbogen between Berry-au-Bag and Vailly.

SPRING OFFENSIVE

The spring offensive of the Entente that was to be expected will most probably be staged in this vicinity, perhaps with the intention of turning the Siegfried Line (Drocourt-Queant Line) and thereby defeat its purpose. North of Arras the British will be forced, according to the nature of the ground, to deliver a joint attack on the long narrow Vimy Ridge, the possession of which gives them command of the high ground in this vicinity and would also be a safeguard against German attacks on the left British flank near Arras.

Opposed to the division (79th Reserve) are Canadian troops. The 3d Canadian division on the right flank of the division (79th Reserve Division) came into the line about the middle of March. Recent identifications place the 2d Canadian Division on the left divisional flank. The extreme flanks of the Canadian corps have closed in towards the centre so that the Canadian corps now occupy a smaller front than it did a few weeks ago. The corps is now echelonned in depth and this formation points to operations on a large scale. Behind the front line near Mont St. Eloy

extensive billets for troops have been erected and this also points to a strong concentration, and that troops are holding the front in depth. The Canadians are known to be good troops and are, therefore, well suited for assaulting. There are no deserters to be found amongst the Canadians.

HOSTILE ARTILLERY

Hostile artillery has visibly increased during the past weeks, numerous new batteries, especially medium calibre, have been identified.

HOSTILE DEFENCES

The repair work done on the hostile trenches also points to a planned offensive. From patrol reports the latest aeroplane photographs show that new saps are being pushed forward, especially in the Fischer sector (Bauble trench to Durand crater). The distance between the lines in this sector was formerly about 200 metres but now a new position has taken shape about 100 metres from the German Line, which consists of three lines of trenches very close together. This new system is connected to the rear by many communication trenches and is a typical example of jumping-off trenches similar to those already used by the French in the Champagne in 1915. Men are reported to be busy at work on the trenches. New sandbag structures and new chalk heaps are continually being seen, probably due to the construction of trench mortar emplacements, etc. Also much spoil is visible caused by pushing forward mine galleries.

The German positions have during the past week been vigorously bombarded. Heavy artillery and minenwefer fire has been brought to bear on the Fischer sector (Bauble trench to Durand crater) and gradually extended to both flanks of the division. The continued artillery activity on this front has made it impossible to reclaim damaged trenches and the communication trenches have also suffered considerably. D. P.'s have been systematically bombarded; heavy artillery fire has been directed on the back areas and battery positions. During the past few days the villages on the back country up to a distance of ten kilometres have been severely bombarded. It appears, taking everything into consideration, that a programme of systematic destruction of artillery positions, dugouts, rearward communications and front line, particularly on both divisional flanks, has been put into force. If there are no signs of an immediate attack, still, it is very certain that the Canadians are planning an attack on a large scale in the immediate future, and both flanks of the division can be considered as the chief points where an attack will be pushed home. The statement of a prisoner captured early today that the attack was to take place between the 20th of March and 6th of April confirms the above.

(Signed) Von Bachmeister.

THE SURRENDER OF GENERAL TOWNSHEND

At the end of November, as we have seen, the small British army under General Townshend was surrounded by the Turkish

army at Kut, a town situated in a loop of the Tigris River. British re-enforcements were being rushed from India, and Turkey, also realizing the importance of the situation, despatched Marshall Von Der Goltz to take command of their forces.

The British relieving force, consisting of 90,000 men under the command of General Sir Percy Lake, began its advance on January 6th and two days later defeated the enemy in two battles. On January 22d the British again attacked entrenched Turkish positions at Ummel-Hanna, but on account of the heavy rain and the sodden nature of the ground failed to dislodge the enemy, equal in numbers to themselves.

On March 7th a flanking movement failed to dislodge the Turks, and, on account of the Tigris floods, nothing more could be done until April. Repeated attacks on both banks of the river for eighteen consecutive days had failed to oust an enemy remarkable in his aptitude for trench fighting, and the relieving force, worn out with continuous fighting and climatic conditions, could do nothing further.

The beleagured British garrison at Kut-el-Amara, after a resistance of 143 days, surrendered, with its garrison of 3,000 English and 6,000 Indian troops.

The heroic features of the siege had seldom been equalled. Knowing that a relieving force was on its way the Townshend garrison at first did not worry, but later on hunger forced them to kill their horses and mules for food. Airplanes dropped tobacco and small quantities of food but no real relief was experienced from that quarter. Finally the defenders became so weak from starvation that there was no alternative but surrender.

The blow at England's prestige in the East created an uproar in England and to appease public criticism a commission of enquiry was appointed. Their report stating that the expedition, though perhaps justifiable from a political point of view, had been undertaken with inadequate preparation and forces, created a sensation. Sir John Nixon, who had urged the expedition; Sir Beauchamp Duff, Commander-in-Chief of the British Forces in India; Lord Hardinge, Sir Edmund Barrow, Military Secretary of the India Office in England, and J. Austen Chamberlain, Secretary for India, were all severely criticized.

In consequence Mr. Chamberlain resigned, though Lord

Hardinge, the Under Secretary of Foreign Affairs, was absolved from responsibility by Parliament.

Under the command of Lieutenant-General Maude a new British expedition was carefully organized. On February 26th Kut was recaptured and the British advanced steadily up the Tigris towards Bagdad, overcoming all enemy resistance. On March 7th the Turks blocked four attempts to cross the River Diala, eight miles below Bagdad, but a crossing was effected two days later and on March 11th the city of Bagdad was occupied by the British.

From the political standpoint the fall of Bagdad was a great event, for it demonstrated to the Oriental mind once more that the Britisher is never beaten, that there seemed to be no limit to the number of times he would return until his purpose had been realized. It was another proof of the power of the British army.

CHAPTER XXI

The Storming of Messines Ridge and Passchendaele

The battle of the Somme clearly demonstrated a number of things. Perhaps the most important of these was the fact that a general and uniform advance of an army along a broad front was an impossibility, for though a large part of the line might be broken, there were numerous fortresses, redoubts and strong points which would slow down or hold up the advance at those places. Consequently until those strong points had been overcome it was inadvisable for the rest of the line to advance owing to enfilading fire to which they would be subjected and the heavy toll of casualties exacted.

During the German retreat of February and March, 1917, the configuration of the French front at the western end had been altered. The section of front along the Aisne heights of some fifty miles, as we had discovered to our cost, was one of the strongest in Europe. The limestone plateau, intersected by deep ravines and interspersed with patches of forest, had been converted into an almost impregnable fortress. Huge caves, tunnels and barbed wire had made the Aisne front an exceedingly difficult front to attack.

The method adopted by General Nivelle, the hero of Verdun, was not that of the Somme. He decided that the whole of the Aisne heights would be crushed in at the same time by one bold assault from west, south and southeast; the Rheims heights on the north would be carried at the same time, while his centre would be launched through the gap into the plain of Laon.

So confident was Nivelle that his audacious plan would succeed that he told the French Government exactly what he meant to do and when it would be done. The forces to be employed were three times as large as those used by Haig in the Arras offensive, while the front to be attacked was the longest since the battle of the Marne.

The German front—the armies of the Crown Prince—was

defended by 350,000 infantry and great masses of artillery and machine guns; an order had been issued that "The first line must be defended at all costs."

THE BATTLE OF THE AISNE

On April 6th the French preparations began and on April 15th every gun on the front was speaking.

At dawn on the 16th the French infantry began the offensive which lasted a little more than a month. There is no need in a history of this type to follow the varying fortunes of the French in this most difficult offensive. Their fighting was marvellous for every French battalion was trained to act as "shock" troops when so required; yet the troops that won the line did the holding of the line.

By April 28th between the Ailette and Suippe Rivers 20,780 prisoners, 175 guns, 119 trench mortars and 412 machine guns had been captured. The enemy had been driven from the banks of the Aisne from Soissons to Berry-au-Bac and all the spurs of the Aisne heights. The French also had won the centre of the tableland. But the dominating height of Craonne and the hills of Brimont and Fresnes had not been won. The road to Laon was still firmly barred, and though there had been a remarkable gain of ground the major strategy had failed.

As a consequence the French nation was greatly disappointed and public feeling called for the leadership of Petain and Foch, the chief exponents of the cautious tactics of the Somme. On May 15th Petain succeeded Nivelle as commander-in-chief of the French armies of the main battlefield, while Foch succeeded Petain as chief of the General Staff in Paris,—a recently revived position similar to that of Sir William Robertson in Great Britain.

The battle was continued for the purpose of gaining certain necessary high points, all of which were won by May 20th with the addition of 6,120 prisoners, 52 guns, 42 trench mortars and 103 machine guns.

Though the second battle of the Aisne did not achieve its aim of dislocating the southern pivot of the Siegfried or Hindenburg line, and did not endanger any vital enemy centre, it had used up many of the enemy's shock troops and had cost him positions which were necessary for his ultimate security.

The bad weather on the opening day, the breakdown of the

tanks and the failure to consider the probability that many strong points would hold up the general advance all played a part in preventing the complete success of an offensive bold and audacious in conception.

THE GERMAN RETREAT ON THE SOMME

After the close of the Somme offensive word began to filter through from Germany of a new fortified line in front of Cambrai and St. Quentin. Aerial observation confirmed the news and the construction of the Siegfried or Hindenburg line was followed with great interest by the allied staffs. It was clear enough that as soon as the weather proved satisfactory the Allies' armies would continue to blast their way forward—a process that must eventually result in a German disaster.

Accordingly von Hindenburg decided to fall back on a new prepared position which would render it necessary for the Allies to advance over ground that he intended to convert into a desert. It was possible that in such a retreat the Allies would be caught napping and a defeat inflicted upon them.

In the spring of 1917 the British intended to make an assault between the Scarpe and Ancre with the Third and Fifth armies, and then develop the main operation of the summer campaign of 1916. To supply material to perfect the communications the railway companies of Britain and Canada tore up tracks and forwarded the necessary rails to France.

On January 11, 1917, the first advance was made near Beaumont Hamel and thereafter several small advances prepared the way for more elaborate operations. As a result of the commanding positions gained the German front became untenable and the Germans began to fall back from positions north of the Albert-Bapaume road. Rapid pursuit was impossible on account of the nature of the roads, but constant touch was maintained with the enemy.

On February 26th the British took over from the French the ground as far south as Roye.

In the middle of March, after numerous attacks which steadily ate into the enemy defences, the enemy began a general retreat between the Aisne and Arras. The British artillery, brought forward with surprising speed, opened up against the enemy and

dislocated his plans for an orderly and leisurely retreat. General pressure was now maintained along the whole allied front with the consequence that the advance spread from Arras to Soissons. There was no serious resistance and the British and French armies advanced steadily.

The area yielded by the German armies in retreat is now known as the Hindenburg Desert. Everything living was destroyed and everything inanimate blown up. The marks of the beast were everywhere apparent and the details published in the German press met with general German approbation. No words could describe the loathing inspired in the allied soldiers for these savage measures, but their anxiety to again come in contact with the perpetrators of such criminal work increased threefold. The Senate of France sent out this message to the world:

> The Senate denounces to the civilized world the criminal acts committed by the Germans in the regions of France occupied by them—crimes against private property and public buildings, honour, liberty, life; crimes perpetrated without the slightest excuse of military necessity and in systematic contempt for the International Convention of October, 1907, ratified by representatives of the German Empire. It holds up to universal execration the authors of these misdeeds, for which justice demands punishment.

During the advance the Allies had to feel their way forward in a country full of possible perils. Behind them there were prepared lines of trenches, new roads and bridges so that in case of retreat they would not be caught unprepared. By April the British were close to the new Hindenburg line near St. Quentin and a few days later the whole enemy front stiffened showing that the new line had been reached.

The enemy had retired some twenty miles, had lost few men or guns and had conducted a skilful retreat. His main purpose, to launch a counter-stroke with his large reserve force collected for that object, failed because of the rapid advance of the Allies. He had reached his famous line in safety but his permanent security depended on the retention of the pivotal points around Arras in the north and Laon in the south.

The next point to be attacked therefore was the pivot around Arras. In this offensive the Canadians, by the capture of Vimy Ridge, attained perhaps the most brilliant success of the war on the British front. (This is described in Chapter XX.)

BRITISH BREAK THE HINDENBURG LINE

The third British army occupied the Arras region. The old German lines near Lens were very strong, consisting of four series of trenches with the usual redoubts and switch lines, so that the defensive system was from two to five miles in depth. In case of an assault upon the Arras salient they had constructed a very powerful independent line running from Drocourt to the new Hindenburg line at Queant. This constituted the Drocourt-Queant switch which later on became so famous as one of the strongest defence lines in Europe, and was intended to protect Douai and Cambrai. Its loss would make the Hindenburg line untenable.

The key of the area was Vimy Ridge which dominated the British front on the Souchez. The front to be attacked reached from Givenchy-en-Gobelle to Croiselles, a distance of twelve miles. On April 4th the bombardment of the enemy positions began, and particular attention was paid to the enemy batteries many of which were put out of action by direct observation, and many by the new method of sound identification.

On Easter Monday, April 9th, the attack began and the British line swept forward. The Canadians quickly overran Vimy Ridge and by nine o'clock most of it was in our hands while the rest of the front attacked had been penetrated beyond the second line. By evening the enemy's third line had been broken into and in some places completely destroyed.

By April 11th the battle of Arras had slowed down until the guns could be brought forward. The attack had penetrated half-way to the Drocourt-Queant line and had carried two miles of the northern end of the Siegfried or Hindenburg line; 12,000 prisoners and 150 guns had been captured. The lesson of the Somme that the slow, laborious and painstaking tactics were the true ones was confirmed.

On April 12th and succeeding days further advances were made and a number of villages and towns were captured. From the 14th the Germans made frequent counter-attacks, which gained them no ground and lost them many men.

The French now began their attack in the Aisne, along the southern part of the Hindenburg line. From that time on the British were concerned with efforts designed to relieve the pressure

on the French by pressing on toward Douai and Cambrai and gain a front favourable for future operations.

From the end of April on it was a matter of limited objectives. On May 3d the Canadians on the left broke through and took the village of Fresnoy, while the Australians on the right carried the front and support of Hindenburg lines at Bullecourt. Though the centre was advanced it was counter-attacked later and driven back, the Canadians and Australians holding firm in their positions.

From May 8th to the 16th there was steady fighting for the key points, and our line was pushed forward in several places. Particularly noteworthy was the defence of Bullecourt by the Australians who with some assistance captured the two front positions of the Hindenburg line on a front of one mile.

By the end of May the battle of Arras had come to an end. It compared splendidly with any other British offensive, for in a month we had taken 20,000 prisoners, 257 guns, 227 trench mortars and 470 machine guns. The enemy had lost a wonderful key position in Vimy Ridge, about seven miles of his marvellous new Hindenburg line, and the important position of Bullecourt. The Germans had sustained 350,000 casualties and had been compelled to withdraw 74 of their 104 divisions in action for reorganization.

THE MESSINES-WYTSCHAETE RIDGE

Late in 1916 Sir Douglas Haig had devised the plan of driving in the German right flank along the Belgian coast, to destroy the worst of the enemy submarine bases, win back Belgian soil and destroy some of the German lines of communication. Since the conception of that plan the Russian disaster had enabled the Germans to greatly strengthen the western front with men, guns and ammunition, while the Arras offensive had used up a considerable number of our reserves.

The great general and simultaneous offensive then agreed upon, as we have seen, did not materialize. The combined British and French spring offensive was launched before Italy was prepared. Russia had failed to give the help expected and the general result of the dislocation of the allied plan enabled the Central Powers to make a far better defence than they could otherwise have done by despatching troops from one front to another as occasion required.

Nevertheless it was decided to carry out the offensive as planned in Flanders, the first objective aimed at being the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge. Until the demands of the Arras operation had been satisfied neither material nor labour was available in sufficient quantity. Since the previous autumn preparations had been under way and as soon as the Arras battle had died away roads, railroads, water-pipe lines and other works were carried forward with great rapidity.

The Messines-Wytschaete Ridge, as it appeared to me from the British line at Mount Kemmel, was a low slope seamed with trenches and showing the remains of splintered woods. The ruins of Wytschaete on the crest of the slope shone white in the sun, while the spire of a ruined church indicated the location of Messines. Wytschaete lay opposite Kemmel Hill and was approximately half way between Messines, which the Canadian artillery had battered so thoroughly from Ploegsteert, and St. Eloi, where the Second Canadian division had fought so heroically in the battle of the Craters. In front of those three points the British lines formed a great sweeping semicircle; the objective contemplated the flattening out of this salient. This meant a penetration of about two and a half miles in the centre of the salient to the village of Oostaverne. To capture this meant that the whole ridge would fall to us and our line would be shortened from about ten to six miles.

For nearly two years along the ridge a battle had been going on underground,—a battle of miners. Some of the greatest mining experts in the world were engaged in supervising the tunnels being driven under the enemy lines. The enemy was also busily engaged counter-mining and a constant underground struggle was waged in which each combatant exerted his utmost endeavours to blow in the other's galleries and render his operations useless. In all the British had constructed five miles of underground galleries along the ridge front and had charged them with a million pounds of the high explosive ammonal. Nineteen mines out of the twenty-four constructed were ready for our attack on June 6th.

At dawn on June 7th the British bombardment of the German lines had ceased. Bombing planes hummed through the lightening sky and our sausage balloons had just gone up when with a shock like a terrible earthquake the nineteen mines blew up. To the

onlooker they resembled huge volcanoes in violent eruption, while the great throbbing of the concussion seemed to fill the whole earth.

As the dust and smoke hung suspended against the rising sun every British gun opened up and the British waves of assault poured up the enemy slopes. Passing through a region smashed and tortured beyond recognition our infantry swarmed into the enemy positions capturing them all along the line. The Australians advancing on the south captured the southern slopes of the Messines Ridge; the New Zealanders captured Messines village. Farther north the Ulster division swept over the crest between Messines and Wytschaete capturing the latter place with the aid of the South of Ireland division (16th). North of this again Welsh and English divisions fought through to Oostaverne itself. On the extreme left of the line attacked, the Tenth corps, after some desperate fighting around the White Chateau and Ravine Wood, gained all its objectives and safeguarded the flank. Before dark the whole position was firmly in the hands of the British.

Like the battle of Vimy Ridge this battle had been most carefully planned and brilliantly carried through. In a single day General Sir Herbert Plumer had, on a front of ten miles, carried the ridges which the enemy had considered impregnable, had wiped out the salient and had captured 7,200 prisoners, 67 guns, 294 machine guns and 94 trench mortars.

To the Canadian who knew that front thoroughly from Ploegsteert Woods to the Ypres salient the capture of the Messines Ridge caused a great deal of satisfaction. For many long months, particularly in the spring of 1916, the Canadians had been compelled to travel around the salient at night like stray cats. Many a time when crossing the fields far from the ridge, single men had been sniped at with field guns. The view of our old positions from the ridge was so complete that British officers were no longer surprised that our transport and troops should have been so frequently shelled, or our movements so thoroughly observed.

LENS AND HILL 70

The capture of the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge was merely the prelude to the main offensive of breaking out through the Ypres salient to the coast.

Meanwhile in the south the third British army, which included the Canadian corps, in order to attract attention from the north carried out a series of minor offensives around Arras and Lens.

Early in May local attacks had been made by Canadian troops in the neighbourhood of Souchez River, which formed the prelude to a long-sustained series of minor operations directed against the defence of Lens. The capture of Vimy Ridge by the Canadians had made these attacks possible and had opened up the road to many long-cherished projects. The capture of Lens was an objective with a view to an attack on Lille from the south. On June 26th the Canadians took La Coulotte and by the morning of June 28th had reached the outskirts of Avion.

On June 28th a mock attack was made on a twelve-mile front from Gavrelle to Hulluch accompanied by discharges of gas, smoke and thermit. At the same time real attacks were made on a 2,000-yard front opposite Oppy and by Canadian and North Midland troops on a two and a half mile front astride the Souchez River with complete success.

It will be remembered that the Highlanders of the Fifteenth Scottish division had, during the battle of Loos, swarmed across Hill 70 and penetrated as far as the Cité St. Auguste, a mining suburb of Lens. The Hill was then lost, but on August 15th at 4.25 A. M., the Canadians of the First and Second divisions swept over Hill 70 and across the Lens-La Bassee road, capturing the suburbs of Cité St. Laurent, and Cité St. Emile. North of it they won the Bois Rase and the western half of the Bois Hugo. Counter-attacks by local German reserves and a division of the German guard were caught in the open by Canadian rifle and machine-gun fire and withered away.

The Canadian attack was pushed still closer home on August 21st by the Second and Fourth Canadian divisions. The fighting was very severe, indeed it is said to have been the severest that Canadian troops had ever experienced. The Canadian corps lost 9,000 men in the battle of Lens and Hill 70.

THE BATTLE OF PASSCHENDAELE

The offensive known as the third battle of Ypres had for various reasons been unavoidably postponed and it was not till the end of July that the attack was begun. The visibility was

bad and though the aerial offensive had been launched and numerous gas attacks and raids carried out to the north of the Lys, conditions for the actual launching of the offensive did not prove suitable till July 31st.

The front to be attacked extended from the Lys River opposite Doulemont to Steenstraat, a distance of fifteen miles. The main blow was to be delivered by the fifth army on a front of seven and a half miles from the Zillebeke-Zandvoorde road to Boesinghe. The second army was to increase the area captured and the French on the left of the Fifth British army were to advance and protect their flank from attacks from the north. The advance was to be over a difficult country in a series of bounds as limited by the configuration of the ground and the enemy's defences.

On July 31st the main offensive was launched and rapid progress made. All objectives north of St. Julien were reached, but after the capture of the first line hard fighting was experienced east of Ypres where the Menin Road crossed the Wytschaete-Messines Ridge and formed the key to the enemy's position. On the first day practically the whole of the crest of the ridge had been gained and the first German system of defence south of Westhoek carried. The second line of defence had been captured as far as St. Julien while the French to the British left had kept step with us. The attack of the second army had met with complete success. Over 6,100 prisoners and 25 guns were taken on the first day.

No one who has not spent a year in Flanders can possibly conceive of the conditions brought about by rainy weather. The heavy clay soil holds the rain and becomes tenacious like glue. The creeks and ditches overflow and become stretches of bog and to leave the beaten roads spells disaster to man or beast.

During the first afternoon of the battle the rain began and for four days continued without cessation. To quote from Sir Douglas Haig's despatch:

> The low-lying, clayey soil, torn by shells and sodden with rain, turned to a succession of vast muddy pools. The valleys of the choked and overflowing streams were speedily transformed into long stretches of bog, impassable except by a few well-defined tracks, which became marks for the enemy's artillery. To leave these tracks was to risk death by drowning, and in the course of subsequent fighting on several occasions both men and pack animals were lost in this way. In these conditions operations of any magnitude became impossible, and the resumption of our

COLD STEEL FOR THE ENEMY AT MONCHY

Troops from Newfoundland participated in the capture of Monchy-le-Preux on April 11, 1917. First with rifle, then with the bayonet and the butt, and at last with fists, they annihilated the enemy.

KAMERAD!

Demoralized by terrific shell fire and fearful of British bayonets, German soldiers implore clemency from advancing troops of the Empire.

offensive was necessarily postponed until a period of fine weather should allow the ground to recover.

The unavoidable delay was most valuable to the enemy, enabling him to recover from our first attack and to bring up re-enforcements.

Though the troops endured terrible hardships owing to the weather, the ground gained was consolidated in spite of violent counter-attacks. On August 3d St. Julien, a name associated forever with the glorious defence of the First Canadian division in the second battle of Ypres, was taken and a week later Westhoek fell to English troops.

On August 16th the second British attack was launched north and east of Ypres and on the left gained their final objective in the capture of the Langemarck-Gheluveldt Line. In the centre obstinate enemy resistance was met. Owing to the impossibility of constructing deep trenches and dugouts because of the water-logged ground the enemy, under General Von Arnim, had resorted to a new type of defence in "pill boxes." These field forts built of steel and concrete several feet thick were distributed in depth, were heavily armed with machine guns and protected by heavy lacings of barbed wire. These forts presented too small a mark for direct hits and formed a very serious obstacle to our advance. The enemy also had adopted a system of elastic defence in which the forward lines were only lightly held while heavy forces were kept in reserve. On account of the weather airplane observation was practically impossible so that little help from artillery during enemy counter-attacks was available. As a consequence our troops were gradually compelled to fall back along the Wieltze-Passchendaele Road, in spite of which the day closed as a decided success for the Allies. Thirty guns and 2,000 prisoners were taken.

Nevertheless the new tactics of the enemy, undoubtedly successful in defence, compelled us to modify our methods of offence and new methods were worked out to overcome them. The method employed was to put down a heavy barrage to cover each "pill box" and stun or poison the inmates with the concussion and fumes of the shell bursts. Another successful method consisted in lengthening the field gun barrage on both sides of the "pill box," thereby enabling the advancing troops to get around to its unprotected rear and bomb out the hives.

At the beginning of September the weather improved and on September 20th Australian, English, Scottish and South African troops attacked on an eight-mile front, with a thoroughness which won the whole of the important high ground crossed by the Menin Road and along the rest of the sector attacked. Over 3,000 prisoners were captured by us. Heavy counter-attacks were broken down by our troops and the position consolidated.

On September 26th a further attack on a six-mile front resulted in the capture of Polygon Wood by the Australians and Zonnebeke by English troops. Seven heavy attacks launched against us were repulsed, and on September 30th several other attacks against our lines, many of them with flaming liquids, broke down.

On October 4th, the day for which the next stage had been planned, a gale with heavy rains broke over the front. On that day occurred a unique thing, for at 6 A. M. both the British and German troops left their trenches to assault at the same time, with the result that the enemy was hopelessly outclassed at close quarters and was driven back. By noon every objective was taken, including the Gravenstafel Ridge and village taken by the New Zealanders, and Noordemhoek and Reutel captured by the British. Five thousand prisoners were taken on that day and counter-attacks all failed; 9,000 yards of the final ridge had been won, while possession of the Gravenstafel spur protected the northern flank. The elastic system of defence had been conquered.

Two months of hard fighting under terrible weather had resulted in achieving only what had been planned for the first two weeks. The weather, worse than it had been for many years, nullified our successes because they could not be followed up and taken advantage of. The hope of clearing the enemy out of his Flemish bases had gone, for the objectives lay far beyond the Passchendaele Ridge. In view of the situation it only remained to capture the last of our limited objectives—the Passchendaele Ridge—to secure our own position for the winter.

The last stage of the third battle of Ypres, commonly called by Canadians the battle of Passchendaele, was probably the muddiest and most difficult operation ever carried out. On October 9th our infantry moved forward under dripping skies and in the north won all their objectives by noon, seizing the outskirts of Houthulst Forest and Poelcapelle. In the centre British terri-

torials and Australians moved forward towards Passchendaele also taking their objectives.

The rain, falling in sheets, prevented further serious offensives, though 1,000 prisoners were taken at Houthulst Forest. The misery of our fighting men now almost surpassed endurance. The country was one great bog and the shell holes kept brim full by the ceaseless downpour were a constant source of danger to the unwary. Wounded men frequently were drowned in the mud and water. Men loaded with packs falling into shell holes were unable to crawl out without assistance and, if none was forthcoming, perished. Men's feet sank deep into the treacherous clay and progress could be made only by the most heroic efforts.

CANADIANS CAPTURE PASSCHENDAELE

Further serious advance had now become almost impossible under such conditions, but Sir Douglas Haig wished to carry on for two weeks longer in view of an offensive being prepared further south. Accordingly the Canadian Corps was asked for and sent northward to the salient so abhorred by all old Canadian soldiers, the attack about Lens being temporarily postponed.

On October 18th, General Sir Arthur Currie took over the command of the Passchendaele front and on the 22d the New Zealand and Third Australian divisions in the trenches in front of Passchendaele were relieved by the Third and Fourth Canadian divisions. The operations by the Canadian Corps were carried out in four distinct phases, October 16th and 30th by the Third and Fourth divisions, and November 6th and 11th by the First and Second divisions.

During the first few days Sir Arthur Currie had numerous plank roads built of the kind which had proved so useful in other Canadian operations. Though carried on under heavy shell fire this vital work was continued and completed at the necessary cost of life and equipment. The light railway was also extended and then over these roads huge quantities of shells and all kinds of material were rushed into the advanced areas.

Though unable to build proper gun emplacements on account of the mud, and though actually inferior to the Germans in guns, our artillery, fighting in the open and constantly exposed to the fumes of gas shells, particularly mustard gas, did magnificent work.

Back of the lines for fifteen miles enemy aeroplanes nightly bombed everything that seemed to them to be of importance. Roads along which our transport had to pass were searched with shrapnel, high explosives and gas shells, while a constant rain of shells poured upon the fields behind the front. The mud fortunately allowed these shells to bury themselves deeply before they exploded so that in blowing upward their effect was largely nullified.

The German position to be taken for the depth of a mile or more consisted of a series of ridges and spurs and was very strong. The numerous little concrete forts frequently had no surface exits, being entered through tunnels which opened to the surface scores of yards away. Consequently the troops within could operate their machine guns with every advantage.

It must also be realized that the Germans were now fighting with renewed vigor. The Russian and Italian defeats had inspired a new spirit of confidence in not only the army but the whole German nation. Consequently the German soldier fought better than he had for some time and put up a vigorous defence.

Between the Gravenstafel spur and the Bellevue spur which runs westward from Passchendaele is a little valley through which flows a small creek called the Ravebeek. Pouring through this valley at dawn on October 26th the Canadians captured the hill south of Passchendaele village.

The Canadians had failed to take the spur and were back in their original trenches when Lieutenant Shankland, who had managed with fifty men to occupy a commanding point on the top of the ridge, came back for re-enforcements. Troops were immediately sent to his assistance with the result that after bitter fighting Bellevue spur was taken.

By evening the Canadians held all of their objectives.

On October 30th at 5.50 A. M. the Canadians attacked from the end of the Ravebeek Valley and the crest of the ridge, being supported on the north by the advance of the London Territorials and Royal Naval division. At 10 A. M. the rain began once more and the Canadians met some of the strongest resistance in the Fifth and Eleventh Bavarian divisions that they had ever encountered. South of the village the Twelfth Canadian brigade won Crest Farm, and the spur west of the village, holding them against five counter-attacks. They also forced their way into Passchen-

daele itself, their front then forming a sharp salient because the progress of the Territorial and Naval divisions had been held up by the nature of the ground.

On Tuesday, November 6th, at 6 A. M., the Canadians of the First and Second divisions swept forward capturing the whole of Passchendaele and the Goudberg spur to the north. The final attack on November 10th increased their gains and gave them possession of all the high ground northeast of Passchendaele, leaving the town itself well within the Canadian lines.

During a Canadian advance one regiment was held up by machine-gun fire from a "pill box" which, perched on a slight elevation, commanded all the ground before it. Suddenly a young soldier dashed forward from the line into a shell hole. Immediately the machine guns were turned upon him and the battalion seized the opportunity to advance. The machine guns were again turned upon the battalion when the soldier dashed forward to another shell hole. By such means dashing from hole to hole he finally got to the rear of the "pill box" and hurling in bombs, cleaned out the garrison. For this action which allowed the whole battalion to advance, Thos. Holmes of Owen Sound, Ontario, eighteen years of age, and the youngest soldier ever given the award, was granted the Victoria Cross, and received on his return to Canada a welcome such as has seldom been accorded to any hero.

Searching for the wounded the stretcher bearers, fearless of death, carried on their work during the battle and kept a steady stream of casualties flowing through the dressing stations, which were close up under shell fire. The Padres and Y. M. C. A. officers worked side by side helping the doctors and providing hot cocoa and biscuits to the stretcher bearers and wounded. Back a little farther the light trolleys and ambulances carried away to the field ambulances the men who, as they themselves expressed it, were lucky enough to be hit. The battle of Passchendaele was destined to be the most terrible and tragic battle that the Canadian Corps was to experience.

All the vital part of the main ridge of West Flanders was now in British hands and we dominated the flats towards Roulers and Thourout. The terrible salient of Ypres, where for three years the Allies had been at the mercy of German artillery, had been wiped out. The losses of the Canadian Corps in this battle were

heavy, the killed, wounded and missing amounting to 14,867 men. The Canadians took 1,200 prisoners. To Canada fell the crowning victory of the third battle of Ypres; the first gas attack of April 22d, 1915, against the First Canadian division, when only two dauntless brigades of infantry stood between the enemy and the channel, had been amply avenged.

The capture of Passchendaele brought to a close the third battle of Ypres. The seas of Flemish mud had proved to be our greatest enemy and our losses, largely because of the rain and its consequences, were heavy. Seventy-eight German divisions had been drawn into the fray, but Germany had many new re-enforcements in the many divisions drawn from the Russian front. In the offensive we captured 24,000 prisoners, 74 guns, 194 machine guns and 138 trench mortars.

CANADIANS IN WINTER 1917–18

After the necessary reorganization the Canadian Corps returned to the Lens front and continued the envelopment of that city until the great German offensive of March, 1918.

The word had gone out that there were to be no further advances by the allied armies. The Germans on the western front had now been enormously strengthened by the transfer of troops and guns from the Russian front and the deflection of ammunition from the eastern theatre.

The year had not gone well for the Allies in spite of numerous victories. The battles of Arras, Vimy, Messines and Flanders or third battle of Ypres had been won by the British. The French had also won the victories of Moronvilliers, Verdun and Malmaison. Throughout the year, except when weather conditions permitted, a continuous offensive had been waged by the British, who had now assumed the greater share of the burden. One hundred and thirty-one German divisions had been engaged and defeated by less than half that number of British divisions. From April 9th, excluding the Cambrai battle, we had captured 57,696 prisoners including 1,290 officers. In the same period we had also taken 393 guns of which 109 were heavies, 561 trench mortars and 1,976 machine guns. In the battle of Cambrai later on 11,100 prisoners and 145 guns were taken.

The British armies in the year had taken 125,000 prisoners

but had suffered heavily. During the year of 1917 they had sustained 800,000 casualties, which was sufficient evidence of the part Britain was playing. The new levies had not come along as rapidly as they were needed and many of them were insufficiently trained. Furthermore, the French in spite of the figures quoted, did not believe that Great Britain was pulling her full weight, with the result that the newspaper campaign conducted in Paris compelled the British to further extend their line from St. Quentin to La Fere on the Oise.

So it was that a new situation had come about. The enemy, again confident in his superiority on the western front and with the dreaded Russian giant out of the way, no longer talked of a peace except that which he would bring about through a victory in the field.

THE ITALIAN FRONT

By June 3d the Austrian offensive in the Trentino had practically exhausted itself and on June 16th the Italian counter-offensive began. In two days the Austrians had lost half the territory they had gained in their six weeks' offensive at the cost of 130,000 men. Austria had to count the Trentino offensive a failure; it had not attained its objectives of the Venetian plains and the Isonzo railway communications; it had weakened her resistance to the Russian attack, and, most important of all, it had taught the Italian army the business of warfare.

During the previous winter Italy had collected much ammunition and many guns, while the army staff had been busily engaged in planning the details of an offensive in the Isonzo region. This was one of the most difficult battlefields of Europe. The Italian right wing lay along the western edge of the Carso,—that barren, rocky waterless plain of burning heat in the daytime and icy cold at night. To the north of the Carso was Mont San Michele which had hitherto defied all efforts of the Italians to take. In the assault in the Isonzo which contemplated the capture of Gorizia, General Cadorna intended to make a feint against the opposite end of the Carso position, in order to attract the Austrian reserves. Then when the main enemy strength had been gathered in that position Cadorna intended to strike with his chief forces against Gorizia on the San Michele front.

CADORNA ENTERS GORIZIA

The feint attack was made on August 4th and achieved the purpose intended, while the real attack was launched on August 6th along the front from Sabotino to San Michele. The fighting of the Italians against positions which might well be considered impregnable was brilliant and position after position fell to them. On August 9th Gorizia was entered by Cadorna, thus ending the first stage of the offensive.

Trieste was the secondary objective of the Italians and on August 10th an advance began on the Vallone which proceeded until August 15th when it came to a standstill.

By this offensive the Italians had won Gorizia and the Gorizia plain; the Austrians had been compelled to lengthen their line, the Isonzo defensive system had gone and the road to Trieste opened up. The Austrians had suffered 80,000 casualties and lost 19,000 prisoners, 30 heavy guns, 62 pieces of trench artillery and 92 machine guns.

Italy was transported with joy and her new enthusiasm for the war solidified the nation as nothing else had ever done. Though she had never declared war on Germany, Italy's position had now become not only anomalous but ridiculous. Germany had supplied Austria, Italy's chief enemy, with guns, munitions and material, while it was largely German soldiers and sailors who directed every operation against the Italian nation. The new Italian national spirit demanded that their enemy should be openly recognized and on August 28th Italy announced a state of war to exist with Germany.

The Carso was to be the next theatre and after a month's preparation a great bombardment of the Austrian trenches began and on September 15th the attack was launched. In the first four days 5,000 prisoners were taken but the Italians were halted. The Austrian lines were again bombarded and on October 10th, when the infantry advanced, 5,000 more prisoners were taken the first day. The tempestuous weather with continuous rains and constant mists made the offensive difficult from the very first in that rocky, mountainous region; after certain high ground, which menaced the enemy centre, had been captured together with numerous prisoners and batteries, the winter closed in postponing any further offensive till spring.

During the winter months great preparations were made by the Italians, while the Austrians also made strenuous efforts to improve their positions.

On May 12th the Italians began a bombardment of the Austrian front from Tolmino to the sea, in which British heavy artillery assisted. The great effort was made from Plava to Salcano. The battle continued until May 22d, the Italian armies under Cadorna proving successful everywhere.

On May 23d between the Adriatic and the Carso a new attack, assisted by swarms of aeroplanes, began which captured the first and second enemy positions and netted 9,000 prisoners. The Italians, however, had suffered greatly and by the end of the month their effort had ceased. Seventeen thousand prisoners were taken and twenty guns captured, while room for freer movement had been gained.

On June 1st the Austrians launched a counter-offensive upon Hill 174 at Tivoli, the crest of Vodice and other points. After varying fortunes the line settled down again with the loss to the Italians of one-third of a mile to a mile on a three-mile front.

This battle, fought among the intricate mountains and valleys of the Trentino and Cadore regions, presented difficulties which seemed insurmountable. The suffering endured by the heroic Italian armies and the numberless wonderful deeds accomplished by individual soldiers will probably only be found properly written up in Italian literature and romance. The western Allies little understood the tremendous natural difficulties of the campaign which their Italian ally was undertaking, and that a gain of a hundred yards often meant more in that region than miles of territory elsewhere. When the battle ceased the army of Cadorna, everywhere successful, had won its way to a position from which the last barriers between Italy and the great Austrian seaport of Trieste were within sight.

SIR JULIAN BYNG'S HISTORIC ATTACK AT CAMBRAI

On November 6th, with the capture of Passchendaele by the Canadians, the long, bitter and costly struggle to break through the Ypres salient to the coast drew to a close. The weather on most of the western British front made further action difficult, but the Italian struggle on the Piave River demanded the relief

of an allied diversion. The most suitable ground for this Sir Douglas Haig found in the rolling country opposite the Hindenburg line in front of Havrincourt Wood and eight miles from Cambrai. Tanks, which could not be employed in the mud of the Ypres salient, could be used here with advantage. The key position to be taken was Bourlon Wood which, if captured and our flank protected, would enable us to dominate the enemy position in the southern part of the Drocourt-Queant line.

The third army under Sir Julian Byng, former commanding officer of the Canadian Corps, was to attack and for this purpose flotillas of tanks were assembled under every bit of cover, particularly in Havrincourt Wood. On November 20th a single shot gave the signal and from the Bapaume Road to Gonnelieu a long row of tanks crawled forward while a dense smoke barrage blinded the enemy. While every British gun rained shells into the German lines the six attacking divisions moved leisurely forward, passing through the lanes rolled out in the wire. Machine-gun nests were quickly wiped out, the main Hindenburg line taken and by 10.30 the reserve line had gone and British troops followed by cavalry were advancing to their objectives, except at three vital points not captured. It is of interest to note in passing that the important bridge at Masnieres having been destroyed, a temporary one was thrown across over which one squadron of the Fort Garry Horse of General Seely's Canadian brigade of the Fifth Cavalry division passed. Breaking through the Beaurevoir-Masnieres line the Fort Garrys charged and captured a German battery, cut up a body of three hundred German infantry and retired only when most of their horses had been killed or wounded. Had all the cavalry been able to get across, since there was little between them and Cambrai, the battle might have ended very differently.

On November 22d the positions necessary for a defensive flank, such as Rumilly, Crevecoeur and Bourlon Wood, had not been won and it was necessary to struggle forward or fall back. Meanwhile the Germans were bringing up reserves, something which Sir Douglas Haig could no longer obtain from his army, weakened by a season's continuous fighting.

By November 27th we had taken 10,500 prisoners and 142 guns while a salient ten miles wide and six miles deep had been hewn out of the enemy's front, but the flanks were not secure.

It was very necessary that the situation for the Germans should be retrieved in order to hold the confidence of the nation for the greater events impending and sixteen fresh German divisions were brought to the area. Ludendorff planned the great counter-attack according to his new tactics using twenty-four divisions for the purpose.

On November 30th gas shells were rained on the British positions and the enemy advancing through the mist overwhelmed our positions. The first British guns lost since the second battle of Ypres were taken at La Vacquerie. It was a serious affair, for the position in front of the salient was turned in flank and rear and was saved only by the gallant Twenty-ninth division. Many units were isolated and died fighting to a man. In one case two London battalions counter-attacked using cooks, signallers, orderlies and runners. In other cases in posts regained a couple of days later the British were found almost buried among German bodies. By December 3d the enemy's impetus was exhausted and on December 4th to 7th Sir Douglas Haig skillfully shortened his line so that the new front ran along the old Siegfried reserve line in the north, and west of Gonnelieu and Villers Guislain on the south, rejoining the old line at Vendhuille.

By the end of the winter the Cambrai front had settled down to its normal condition.

CHAPTER XXII

Keeping Our Canadian Soldiers Fit

A soldier eats his own weight in food about every thirty days and there is more truth than fiction in the statement that an army travels on its stomach. Poor food and reduced rations will take the heart out of an army very quickly, while plenty of good wholesome food is a tremendous factor in keeping an army healthy and in fighting trim.

The problem of feeding an army is a never ending one. There could be no breakdown in the system of supplies, for the army must be fed regularly under all conditions. Fleets of ships scoured the world in pursuit of supplies of food for the British army. Scores of ships loaded with fresh frozen beef, cheese, bacon, butter, and flour sailed from America to the British Isles every week. Other scores of ships with mutton from Australia, beef from South America, sugar from the West Indies and other essentials carried their cargoes to supply rations for the British army.

Scurvy no longer occurs in warring armies. Though the rations consisted of staple nutritious foods, and fresh vegetables because of their bulk could not be issued, provision was made for the purchase of accessory foods. The ration officially issued was so liberal that it could not be consumed and the excess ration was seldom actually issued. But for the rations not issued credit was allowed so that fruit, fresh vegetables, sweets and other extra luxuries could be purchased. The British commissariat kept on hand a great variety of luxuries which the various army messes could purchase with the credits allowed them. Organizations like the Canadian Contingent Association and other similar organizations also provided extras to the troops in the field, all of which helped to vary the monotony of the regular diet.

Beef and bacon are the two kinds of meat that can be eaten by the soldier day after day for months at a time without getting tired of them and these are the two ration meats used in the British army. That is why the price of beef and bacon soared sky high in

Canada during the war. The army had first call on the supply and there was not enough left to go round.

Wheat bread is always a staple in the diet of the British soldier and huge bakeries at the British base turned out tens of thousands of loaves a day. It was common gossip at the front in 1916 that the chief baker at the base had received the Military Cross—thereby testifying to the importance of his work. Sugar was also found to be an excellent food and was added to the soldiers' dietary, chiefly in the form of jam. Cheese also was a great standby and constituted part of the ration. Maconachie ration—a canned Irish stew—beans, peas, dried potatoes, rice and, when obtainable locally, fresh vegetables, gave variety to the diet.

In the British army portable cookers on wheels accompanied the army units on the march. A meal could be started before camp was left and kept cooking on the march so that when the unit stopped, a steaming hot meal was all ready to serve.

CLOTHING AN IMPORTANT FACTOR

The British army was undoubtedly the best fed, best equipped and healthiest army that has ever taken the field since the beginning of time. The uniform was warm and of the best quality. Underclothes of wool, flannel shirts, woolen cardigan jackets, sweaters and balaclava caps were issued when desired and the blankets were of good quality. In winter rubber capes were issued to all, while rubber hip boots, or waders, were supplied to the men in the trenches. All drivers were issued with rubber coats and sou'wester hats. The expense of these waterproof supplies was very great, but expense was nothing to the British army where pneumonia and death were concerned. The health of the army was the great desideratum and every effort was made to prevent unnecessary sickness. The first Americans landed in France, equipped with canvas clothing, nearly froze to death and were outfitted with British woolen shoddy which had been found by experience to be the only kind of clothing suitable to the damp, cold, penetrating climate of northern France.

RECREATION AND RELAXATION

But a soldier needs other things than good food, warm clothing and equipment to keep him well and happy. He has a brain and that brain has to be exercised like his other physical faculties.

When men have been under the strain of the front line trenches, the monotony of heavy fatigue work and the long dreary spells of cold and wet he must have relaxation of some sort, an opportunity to play games and have a good laugh. The British soldier was not like the French poilu. You did not see him sitting around in the little villages in groups of three to a dozen or more smoking cigarettes and discussing with great volubility questions of practical or theoretical interest as was the custom of the French soldier.

But he loved getting and writing letters. You saw him standing in front of candy stores trying, like the boy he was, to decide what he would buy. You saw him playing football and baseball with great enthusiasm or cheering for his own team. And he loved the movie shows and concert companies that helped to brighten his evenings out of the line.

Everywhere in the army area were found the Y. M. C. A. huts or tents. There during the day the soldier found the huts filled with little tables at which he could read or write letters. A good supply of newspapers, magazines and books was always kept on hand, while each Y. M. C. A. hut operated a canteen where coffee, sweet stuffs, soft drinks and other delicacies not supplied by the army could be obtained.

In the Y. M. C. A. huts concerts and illustrated lectures were given, while practical talks on Christianity and other topics of interest to the thinking soldier, aided by sing-songs, were frequently held. Educational classes in French, literature, history and other subjects were given to those interested.

Supplementing the Y. M. C. A. huts were the Salvation Army huts and Church Army huts with somewhat similar purposes.

The entertainment features, though frequently provided by local talent, by no means depended upon volunteers. In England an entertainment bureau was organized which sent out concert companies, entertainers, prominent professional men and scientists on regular tours along the front. Some of the greatest authorities in Great Britain on subjects such as aeronautics, law, naval affairs, history, philosophy and English literature contributed gladly to these courses.

In athletics, every unit had its football team, sprinters, boxers and other athletes, always ready to meet their rivals in the field days frequently held behind the line. Boxing tournaments were

always wonderfully well patronized by thousands of soldiers, experts on that national pastime.

Numerous band concerts were given at the front. Each regiment, as a rule, had some sort of a band to help lighten the weary road. The effect of music upon exhausted soldiers on the march was wonderful. To see a regiment of soldiers in heavy marching order plodding along the rough pavé roads in Flanders and then to see them brace up and step out with renewed life when the music struck up was to convince one that an army band was a real godsend. The British and Canadian soldier loved music and wherever a band concert was to take place every man who was able treked to the square or the field where the concert was to be held, and usually stood in silence till the concert was over. It was, perhaps, one of the most characteristic English features of a people who had a band in every village and town and who truly loved music.

WATER SPORTS

One of the most interesting and unique events that I saw was a regatta held on a canal in the village of Merville one spring Sunday afternoon. Overhead aeroplanes droned on their daily routine and in the distance the field guns cracked in the desultory fashion of that period.

Gathered along the banks of the stream were the villagers in their Sunday-best clothes mingled with crowds of British soldiers. Opposite the finishing line sat the Mayor and the judges including the Director of Medical Services of the district, while behind them was seated a scratch village band.

Promptly at 2.30 the regatta commenced with an open swimming race. Then there followed high diving contests, long dives, swimming under water, walking the greasy pole and tub races. The most interesting of all was a sort of gladiatorial contest. Two huge boats, heavily built and with high projecting bows, approached each other at full speed. Each barge was manned by several oarsmen, one man to an oar, while on the bow stood a half naked soldier armed with a long pole on the end of which was bound a huge swab covered with leather. When the barges came within striking distance the two contestants tilted ferociously at one another with their lances, but missed, and the boats came together with a crash that nearly threw the contestants into the stream.

Then followed a furious battle; the boats were securely locked together and the two gladiators punched and struck with their shortened weapons until one, fetching the other a neat back slap under the ear, precipitated him into the canal amid cheers and roars of laughter.

We went home refreshed in body and spirit and on many a tiresome day I looked back upon that Sunday afternoon with a great deal of pleasure and amusement. Doubtless there were hundreds of others who extracted as much enjoyment from the regatta as had I. And that is why contests, sports and competitions meant so much to the man in the field, not altogether for what he got out of them at the time but for the pleasure he got in looking backward and thinking of them when times were more or less dark and dreary.

FIELD DAYS BEHIND THE LINES

Much ingenuity was employed in getting up some of these field days behind the lines. On one occasion the Second Canadian brigade gave an afternoon of sports. There were the usual preliminaries—boxing, wrestling on horseback, novelty races—to the real event, a circus parade. Hundreds of soldiers in costume took part led by three band-wagons and a wonderfully attired ringmaster. Wild men and women in chains, and a general in chains on floats, could not rival the one which depicted the return of the Canadians after the war. A group of men with snowy beards reaching to their waists and with arms covered to the shoulders with wound stripes sat upon a raft with a tree stump for a mast. All struggled desperately at the oars while the steersman at the stern manipulated a chopper as a rudder. "Canada or bust" was the motto suspended from the mast.

On another occasion at the sports of the Canadian Corps in France about 50,000 soldiers attended. The meet was held in a sort of huge national amphitheatre, special stands were erected for officers and detailed arrangements made to feed the multitude. One of the most interesting features of this meet was the fact that men met scores of friends whom they had not met for months and years past and all voted it a huge success.

LEAVE TO BLIGHTY

Provision was made in the British army for men and officers to obtain leave, usually for a week or ten days, to England. It had a

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HIS LITTLE GREY HOME ON THE WESTERN FRONT

A soldier of the Canadian Railway Troops is obviously pleased with the hut he built. Note the shell-proof, sand-bagged sides.

IN THE SLOUGH OF THE SOMME
Rescuing a comrade from a shell-hole.

wonderful effect in getting rid of the staleness which sooner or later gripped all men at the front. The few days of relaxation away from the sound of the guns amid surroundings of cleanliness and comfort rejuvenated the men and sent them back prepared for another spell at fighting the Hun.

BATHS

The greatest luxury at the front was a hot bath, and these were provided in every divisional area on the British front. Three or four miles behind the trenches in the rest areas, in places where a plentiful supply of water could be obtained, the army had established bath houses. Sometimes a brewery, or part of it, was taken over for this purpose because the breweries all had deep wells from which a plentiful supply of water could be obtained. If the bath house was in a brewery they utilized the large beer barrels cut in two for baths. These were filled with cold water and live steam turned into the water to warm it.

Most of the bath houses were in improvised shacks built upon the edge of creeks or ponds. The water was pumped into an elevated reservoir and usually heated by means of a threshing machine boiler, rented or purchased from some neighbouring farmer. One section of the shack was divided off for a bathroom with a number of showers and the other rooms devoted to the receiving of dirty clothing, storing clean clothing, washing, drying and sterilizing.

At the bath house a certain number, say twenty men, passed into the first room where they undressed. Their underclothes and shirts were thrown to one side to be washed; their uniforms were hung on numbered racks and placed in the disinfection chamber where they were immediately treated with live steam or dry heat, or they were taken into an adjoining room where the seams were ironed with hot irons to destroy "cooties."

The men then passed into the bathroom where they were given about ten minutes to luxuriate in plenty of hot water and soap. As they passed out of the bath through another room they were given clean socks, underclothes and shirts, and by the time they were dressed their own uniforms, disinfected, were handed back to them. The whole operation took from twenty-five to thirty minutes, and from a thousand to fifteen hundred men were put through each bath house in a day.

The discarded clothes were washed by local peasant women paid by the army. In one of these establishments there were 160 Belgian peasant women engaged in this work. Mending was also done by them, while socks and clothes too far gone to be mended were packed in bundles and sent away to be sold.

The waste wash water from the baths and laundries entering the creeks naturally caused trouble to troops down stream who had to use it. Horses would not touch the soapy water, and the brewers objected to making beer with it.

Consequently the sanitary officers were in many cases compelled to put in tanks to treat this dirty water and purify it. This was usually done by adding an excess of chloride of lime, which precipitated the soap as a curd and carried the dirt down with it. By sedimentation, and filtration through canvas, cinders and sand, the water was clarified and turned into the creeks again clean.

CHAPTER XXIII

The United States in the War

The United States of America had always clung to the policy of the Monroe Doctrine, which was very dear to her—a policy which would not permit of any entangling foreign alliance or interference in any European dispute. It was a principle that had as its foundation the belief that the United States was not necessarily one of the great community operations and could therefore pursue its own course irrespective of its great world neighbours.

The Americans had from the beginning of the war steadily endeavoured to secure a maritime code that would ensure to all nations the freedom of the seas, and had tried to secure a judicial settlement of the military disputes between the combatant nations.

Slowly they learned the bitter truth that no nation, like no man, can live unto himself alone. They learned that there could be no such thing as freedom on the seas unless they did their share of winning the war on land, that the power that worshipped Force had to be beaten with force, and that they had to help compel the savages of Europe to put up their swords. The agents that enlightened the American people, that made them realize the true situation and ultimately made them throw in their lot with the Allies worked slowly but surely.

The ravishing of Belgium convinced most thinking Americans that Germany was a menace to civilization. The German claim that the United States had no business to sell munitions to the Allies irritated American opinion. The sinking of the *Lusitania* brought home the conviction that persistence in such a policy must inevitably result in war. The conspiracies carried on by official agents of the Central Powers stung American pride to the very quick. Throughout the length and breadth of the United States, and even in departments of the Government, German and Austrian accredited agents operated, bought and subsidized papers to arouse feelings of bitterness for and distrust of the Allies, and embroil the country in war; incited insurrection in Cuba, Haiti and Santo Domingo; stirred up

discord in South America; blew up bridges, munition works and other vital works, and in general endeavoured by every known means to keep the United States from entering the war against them and minimize her assistance to the allied cause as much as possible.

The complicated negotiations which took place between Berlin and Washington resulted in a promise from Germany that ships would not be sunk on the high seas without warning. To the casual observer, it might seem as though the matter had been settled. But two opinions had steadily developed in America as a result of these various controversies, both championed by prominent men.

Mr. Elihu Root and Mr. Theodore Roosevelt were strongly of the opinion that this war was America's war and that the Allies were fighting for America's interests and the maintenance of public right. To this group the disputes with Great Britain as to her naval policy were of no import because Great Britain was waging a war for the rights of humanity including America.

The champion of the other school was President Wilson. He desired to make this the last war fought under the old conditions of international isolation and desired to create a League to Enforce Peace—a league which would police the world for the sake of international justice.

Shortly after the Presidential election of 1916 in which Wilson had been returned to power on the understanding that he would pursue his policy of keeping America out of the war, the German U-boat activity revived, and Germany, pointing to her conquests, threw out feelers for a peace based on those victories. President Wilson, now assured of power and pledged to the policy of a League of Nations, saw that America's hour was about to strike. To clear the air, Wilson sent notes inviting the belligerent nations to define their aims. The fact was thereby established that opinion in the United States was clearly the same as the opinion of the Allies, and therefore antagonistic to that of the Central Powers. On January 22d, 1917, the President in an eloquent speech set forth the terms of a peace which could be guaranteed by America.

A week later, on January 31st, Germany informed the United States that she intended to enter upon an unrestricted submarine campaign. On the 3d of February the American Ambassador at Berlin was recalled and the German Ambassador to America handed his passport.

The President in a speech to both Houses announced the severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, but stated that only actual overt acts would convince him of Germany's hostile purpose. He ended with a solemn declaration that if such occurred, he would ask Congress for power to take any steps necessary for the protection of the American people.

As a result of the German decree, American passenger ships were deterred from sailing to Europe. Though only a couple of American ships were sunk, an intolerable situation was created for a great and independent people such as the Americans were. President Wilson, therefore, on February 26th, asked Congress for authority to arm American ships for defensive purposes. The authority was granted by the House of Representatives but was held up by a pacifist element in the Senate until the session closed. An overwhelming majority of the Senate, however, signed a manifesto in favor of the bill.

On February 26th the *Laconia* was sunk and eight Americans drowned. On March 1st an order issued by Zimmerman, the German Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, to the German Minister in Mexico, was published. It suggested that in the event of war breaking out between Germany and the United States, Mexico would receive financial aid from the German Government if she would form an alliance with Germany. The states of Texas, Arizona and New Mexico would be given Mexico as a bribe if she would undertake an invasion of the United States. It was understood also that Japan would be invited to break faith with the Entente Allies and declare war against America.

Such proposals inspired a deep resentment in the Western States where the U-boat campaign was least understood. Practically all thoughtful Americans now realized that the policy of armed neutrality was impossible.

On March 12th an order was issued that merchant ships should be armed. On March 16th the *Vigilancia*, with five Americans on board, was sunk. Next day the *City of Memphis* and the *Illinois* were sent to the bottom. On the 21st, seven Americans perished when the *Healdton* was torpedoed off Holland, and on April 1st, twenty-eight Americans went down with the *Aztec*.

The defiance was so clear that American feeling against Germany reached fever heat. On April 2d, President Wilson, at a

joint session of the two Houses of Congress summarized the situation in a message that will rank with the greatest of America's many great official speeches. He said in part:

There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making: we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are not common wrongs; they cut to the very roots of human life.

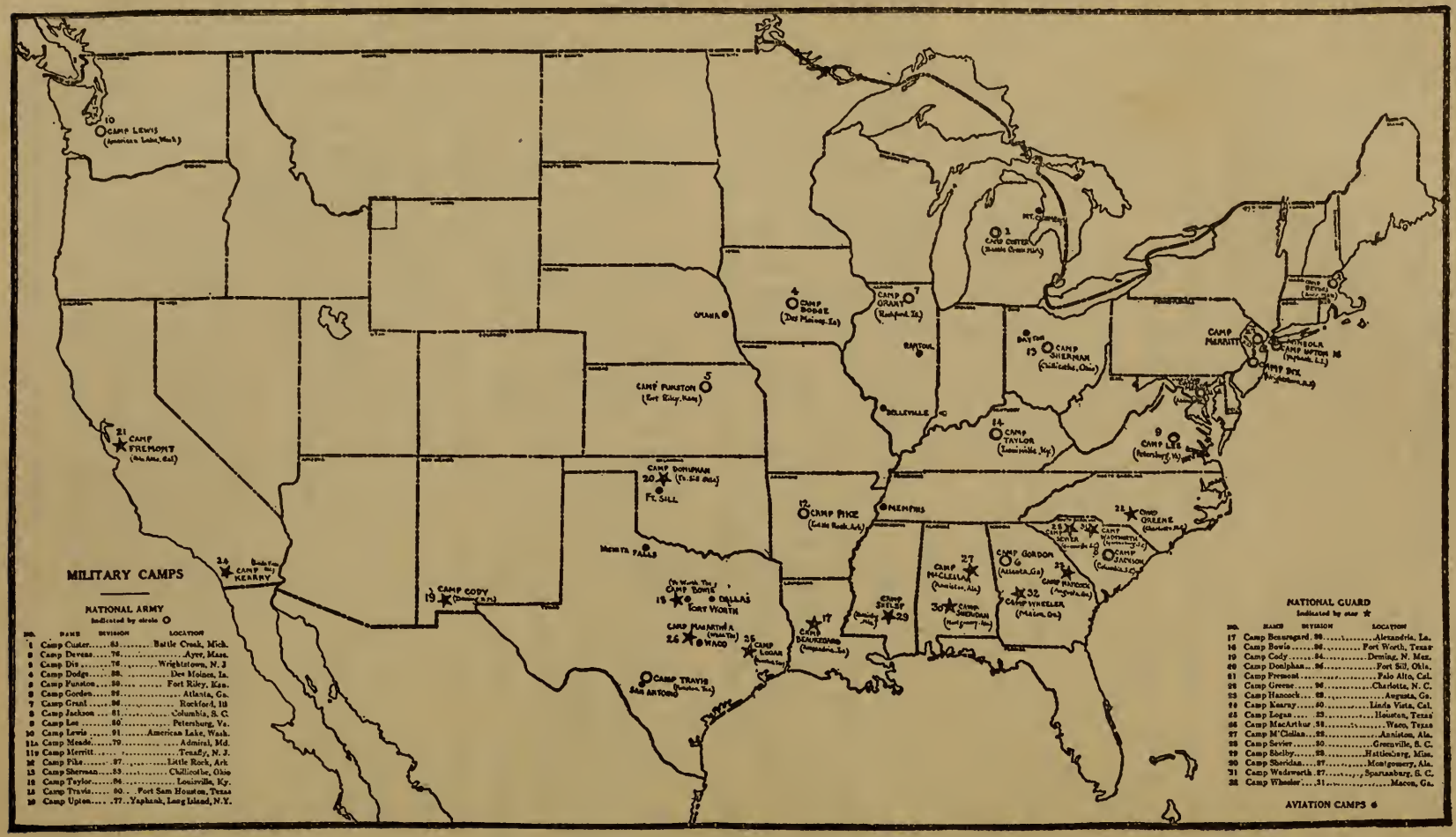
With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it; and that it take immediately steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defence, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war.

The message of the President was received with great enthusiasm by Congress and by the country at large. Though the debate revealed some opposition, opinion was vastly in favor of war, and on April 4th the Senate passed the war resolution by 82 votes to 6. On April 6th by a majority of 373 votes to 50 the House of Representatives passed the same resolution.

Perhaps no speech so succinctly epitomized the general feeling of the true American as the speech of the Representative from Illinois, Mr. Foss.

As a reward for our neutrality what have we received at the hands of William II? He has set the torch of the incendiary to our factories, our work-shops, our ships and our wharves. He has laid the bomb of the assassin in our munition plants and the holds of our ships. He has sought to corrupt our manhood with a selfish dream of peace, when there is no peace. He has wilfully butchered our citizens on the high seas. He has destroyed our commerce. He seeks to terrorize us with his devilish policy of frightfulness. He has violated every canon of international decency, and set at nought every solemn treaty and every precept of international law. He has plunged the world into the maddest orgy of blood, rapine and murder which history records. He has intrigued against our peace at home and abroad. He seeks to destroy our civilization. Patience is no longer a virtue, further endurance is cowardice, submission to Prussian demands is slavery.

The unrestricted submarine warfare could have had no other



HOME CAMPS OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY.

result (with a proud people) than war. The United States policy of armed neutrality was bound to end in a clash, and the arming of merchant ships manned by crews from the navy was but a step towards the inevitable. Accordingly the Naval Department worked at high speed making preparations for active service, gathering fully complements of men for their ships and hastening the construction of new vessels.

When the United States entered the war on April 6, 1917, a Council of National Defence was formed which acted as the great centre for organizing and co-ordinating all agencies and industries essential for the efficient prosecution of the war. To the high executive offices men of the highest ability in the country were appointed at the nominal salary of a dollar a year. The nation decided to raise an army of 4,000,000 men by the system known as the "Selective Draft" and, as in England, the arming, equipping and transportation of that host was quickly realized to be a task infinitely greater and more difficult than had been at first anticipated.

The United States had one enormous advantage in that it had the experience of the Allies during nearly three years of war. The Allies had made many mistakes and had learned a great deal through the bitter experience of failure. Naturally they were anxious that their great new ally should not waste effort or duplicate methods which had already proved unsatisfactory, and therefore sent over experts in every branch of warfare to give them the benefit of their experience. This meant a great deal, and the United States evinced an eagerness to eliminate the mistakes of others and become efficient in every field that was remarkable.

The problems of the United States were no simple ones. The foreign population constituted a large per cent of the total population, and its mixed character may be gauged from the fact that American censors were required to know forty-seven languages.

When the United States had therefore fully made up its mind, there was no further truck with any antagonistic foreign element; German capital invested in American industries was placed under the jurisdiction of the Alien Property Custodian. Wireless apparatus was all put under government control; 109 German ships, of which great numbers had been interned, were seized and converted into transports.

Nothing surprised the Germans more than the passing of the Draft Act, because such legislation was known to be opposed to American principles. But the Draft Act stands to-day as a monument to the United States, for the people entered into it and co-operated with it until it was made a shining and brilliant success.

The United States had entered the struggle with very few laws to protect the people. They had great difficulty in getting proper measures, and it was only after the country had been in the war six months that the necessary legislation was provided. But it was found possible to perform the work with little new legislation. The country came through the conflict without a single drastic change in the law and without any military tribunals. The civil authorities had totally suppressed enemy propaganda and sedition while maintaining good order and government throughout the land.

One of the laws that proved most valuable in handling a difficult situation was one enacted one hundred and twenty-five years ago called the Internment Act, which provided the President with power to deal with aliens as he saw fit. It had been entirely forgotten by the great majority of legislators and completely overlooked by the German spies in their nefarious work and its ramifications. But it came about that the President authorized the Attorney-General to administer the so-called alien enemy proclamations. The act was not reviewable by the courts and it cleared the United States of all hostile propaganda and hostile activities.

When the United States entered the war the Government expected all kinds of lawlessness and crime on the part of the alien enemies and their spies, but they did not occur. The Internment Act was enforced with the utmost severity and proved the great power in stamping out German activity. It regulated the conduct of every alien enemy in the country and protected the entire seaboard from the Gulf of Mexico to Vancouver. It required all alien enemies who were not interned to obtain photographic passes, and in all, 900,000 of these documents were issued. The law worked with such perfection that immediately an alien enemy showed himself at any port in the United States he was placed under arrest and promptly interned. Strangely enough it was the civil power that protected the army bases.

The Internment Act broke up the enemy intrigues, and it worked

with astounding effect in one of the most extraordinary conglomerations of humanity that had ever been met in any land. It made absolutely no distinction in the standing of persons charged or suspected, and immediately the information was received the accused was placed under arrest. Anyone believed to be a menace was interned without delay and in quick time the great bulk of the spies that infested the continent at the outbreak of the war were lodged in the jails and internment camps of the country.

Great efforts were made to speed up the building of ships and increase the number of shipyards. The production of munitions was increased at a marvellous rate. Great plans were made to evolve a fleet of 20,000 aeroplanes, while practical plans to increase the production of food and prevent all unnecessary waste of foodstuffs were rapidly put into force.

The war had become popular in America and the whole country rallied to the support of the Government in a way that was gratifying to all concerned. Action taken to reduce railway travel and thereby enable more freight to be carried, to conserve gasoline, to save fuel and light, to adopt compulsory rationing and other measures received the hearty and united approval of the people.

Billions of dollars for war purposes were voted without opposition; increased taxation was met with cheerfulness, and huge war loans were raised by the Government from the investment of the public in war bonds.

The American democracy was willing to accept more or less autocratic conditions without a murmur, realizing that to get the best and quickest results the administration during a war must be in the hands of the few.

The U-boat campaign had been steadily reducing the carrying capacity of the allied fleets and the United States realized that her obligations lay with her Allies—that it was just as necessary to keep the allied armies and the allied peoples fed as it was to raise an army.

The original American Government plan was to have 5,000,000 men under arms before the middle of 1919. The first selective service law conscripted men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one inclusive. On the first registration day, June 5, 1917, 9,586,508 men were enrolled and from these by the selective method 625,000 men were drawn. Under the second selective service legis-

lation 13,000,000 citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, inclusive, were enrolled on September 12, 1918. Youths under nineteen years of age were placed in a group to be called last, and men between thirty-six and forty-five were put in a deferred class. When the armistice was signed the United States had actually 4,000,000 men under arms.

The first actual participation of Americans in the war occurred when an American destroyer escorted a large Atlantic liner through the danger zone. Shortly after that Admiral Sims, with a fleet of American destroyers, arrived at Queenstown just twenty-eight days after war had been declared. A great reception was given to the American flotilla. The streets were decorated with the Stars and Stripes and the sailors hospitably entertained.

One of the first great problems to be solved was that of producing more tonnage in ships than the German submarines were sinking. The submarine blockade was proving to be a real menace: huge quantities of food, munitions and material destined for the Allies were being sent to the bottom daily. No neutral nation was immune and Norwegian, Dutch, Spanish and other ships met the same fate. England depended absolutely on her shipping and Germany was making a desperate effort to starve her. Since much of Great Britain's supplies were carried in neutral ships Germany realized that in pursuing this policy, she was staking her last card, and struck out in a wild frenzy that brought upon her the wrath of the whole neutral world.

The United States had neglected shipbuilding in recent years and many ships were needed. The American Government immediately appropriated $1,135,000,000 for the purpose of ship building. Delays were caused through division of authority and progress was not as rapid as expected. In the spring of 1918 the Director General of the Emergency Fleet Corporation speeded up production, so that at the end of the first year the Government had gathered up two and three-quarters million tons of shipping. In the year previous to the war, only a quarter of a million tons of shipping was turned out in the country. During the month of May, 1918, more than that quantity was being turned out.

This result was only possible through the patriotic stand of the American Federation of Labour. Occasional strikes occurred that were readily settled and the high wages paid enabled the worker

to live as he never had before. There was a moderate amount of trouble caused by the anarchistic foreign element but this was easily controlled.

In the effort to rush additional material and food to the Atlantic ports after war had been declared, immediate trouble developed on the railroads. The United States Government had not, like Great Britain many years before the war, worked out the problem of mobilization with the railway authorities. Even before the entry of the United States, thousands of loaded cars accumulated at the comparatively few shipping points, while after war was declared the congestion rapidly increased. This situation was complicated by the necessity of moving hundreds of thousands of soldiers to camps as well as the material to build the camps. Government officials, by the abuse of the system of priority tags, further hindered progress and created a difficult situation. Failing to find a satisfactory solution anywhere the President, at the end of December, 1917, took over the entire transportation systems of the United States through authority derived from an act of Congress, and placed them under a Director General of Railroads. It was a fine illustration of the fact that the Government desired efficiency above all else, for to take over 441 corporations employing 1,600,000 men and worth $17,500,000,000 was a gigantic venture.

The immediate result of the President's action was that coal moved to the districts needing it most, thereby keeping production of war materials going; wheat began flowing in a steady stream from the West to Atlantic ports for shipment to the Allies, and, in general, a wonderful addition to the strength of the allied cause was brought about by this bold arrangement.

Little did any one dream that a war in Europe would induce the greatest democracy in the world to adopt an autocratic action without parallel. Not only did the railway companies, including perhaps some of the most powerful corporations in the world, accept the situation, but the action met with the universal approval of the people.

Following this the American Government took over the control of all telegraph, telephone, radio and cable lines for the duration of the war.

To handle the immense problem of transporting the huge American army to France, it was necessary to build new terminals,

new docks, and new supply bases both in America and in France. The ships necessary for the actual transport were not available, and over half of the army had to be carried in British ships.

To the Allies, June 25th was a memorable day, for on that day the first American troops landed in France. The American regular army was naturally small, consisting of some 190,000 troops, and it was necessary to distribute these among the new troops then being trained in America.

General Pershing, the American commander-in-chief, was an expert soldier with years of campaigning in the Mexican and Spanish wars. The regular American army staff were highly trained professionals, perhaps equal to any in the world. And when it was announced that American soldiers had landed in France the Allies, particularly the French people, heaved a vast sigh of relief. It was proof that the United States was in the war, that the Russian defection had not made the situation on the western front hopeless, and that ultimate victory was assured to the Allies. It was natural that these lithe, lean young men with the springy walk of the Canadian, New Zealander and Australian, should have received a welcome such as only the French people can give. They were the vanguard of an army of millions from the great sister Republic that could and would, if necessity demanded it, put fifteen millions of men in the field.

CHAPTER XXIV

The Russian Revolution

Rasputin—meaning "dirty dog"—of peasant Siberian stock, had in his youth been famous as a horse thief, perjurer, drunkard and libertine. Upon these qualifications he had grafted that of a religious ascetic, wearing a hair shirt and performing miracles. He started a new cult where dancing and debauchery were mixed with mystic seances, and his uncanny power over women soon gave him a great following.

This scoundrel, the like of whom does not often appear outside of the pages of a novel, finally gained access to the imperial family in Petrograd and became a sort of royal medicine man to the Russian court.

His chief passion, after drink and women, was gold and it quickly became apparent that the quickest road to high office was to bribe Rasputin. Fashionable women, ministers and dignitaries of the church waited in his antechamber.

He stood for all that was dark, ignorant and brutal in Russia, and had much to do with the retirement of the Grand Duke Nicholas, who openly despised him. Princes of the royal blood appealed to the Czar and Czarina to tear themselves loose from his influence and were promptly exiled for their pains.

As is usual in such cases, he created an army of enemies. He had frequently been assaulted and beaten but curiously enough escaped death at the hands of his enemies, who were chiefly of the upper classes.

At last he became so alarmed that he would interview only those who had been seen first by his bodyguard and finally kept himself in hiding.

His end came one night when he was invited out to a supper party, was plied with poisoned wine which failed to work, and was eventually shot and thrown into the river. The whole country applauded the deed which was regarded as a judicial execution.

It was the preliminary to the Russian revolution.

The session of the Duma in November, 1916, with its attacks upon the administration, had passed by apparently without result. Prince Golitzin had been appointed premier, and M. Protopopov, the chief agent of reaction, had increased his activities

But underneath there were forces working which were destined to bring about such an upheaval as the modern world had never seen.

Opposed to the court circle with its corrupt influences, secret police affiliations and underworld methods of oppression, there had gradually come together another set of forces, composed of the reasonable elements in Russian life. These included the Duma, the united nobility, the Council of the Empire, together with the extreme Socialists who, however, had not the same objectives. With the better forces the army was in full sympathy.

With the aid of the stir caused by the murder of Rasputin the "Dark Forces" of Russia hoped to bring on an abortive revolution, whose suppression by every known method of terror would enthrone those sinister influences for another century. They had forgotten the struggle with Germany and considered only their own selfish interests and the perpetuation of their barbaric prerogatives.

The just fate of Rasputin postponed the assembling of the Duma for another month, to give, it was said, the new Premier time to consider his policy. Meanwhile the censorship tightened, the police became interested in all private meetings, and the general congress of the Zemstovs and the Union of Towns was forbidden. Machine guns intended for the army were established all over Petrograd and the secret police was vastly increased.

Endeavours were now made to force along the revolution which was to re-establish the reactionaries in power, but the people seemed not to desire it. On February 27th the Duma met and everything went quietly. In the streets of Petrograd straggling processions of people wandered about begging for food for their children, while others waited in long queues for the daily bread ration which grew more difficult to obtain. The transport system of Russia, under the strain of war had broken down, and the export of grain from parts of the country where there was plenty, to others where there was none was prohibited. Everywhere there were the Social Democrats to blame the Government which made such a condition possible.

On March 8th, while the Duma was discussing the food situation, some bakers' shops were broken into in the poorer quarters of Petrograd. It was the beginning of the revolution.

Next day all Petrograd was on the *qui vive.* Everybody appeared on the streets expecting something to happen. Cossack soldiers were cheered but the police were stoned and some shooting resulted. Two workmen who had been arrested were rescued by a band of Cossacks and turned over to their friends. There was little political speech-making and appeals for moderation were heard on every hand. Next day the crowds were denser and the talk was of a more serious character.

The Government had either to satisfy the people or threaten them. They did the latter. A proclamation was issued announcing that the police would disperse crowds, and workmen not returning to work would be sent to the front. The crowds continued to gather with the result that some two hundred were killed. One regiment mutinied when told to fire upon the people. The President of the Duma, M. Rodzianko, telegraphed the Emperor describing the situation and stating that a new government enjoying the confidence of the people should be formed at once. Copies of the telegram were sent to the army chiefs asking for their support. The Premier, Golitzin, prorogued the Duma with the consent of the Emperor, but the Duma refused to be prorogued and constituted itself the sole constitutional authority of Russia. Next day the soldiers were ordered to fire upon the mob; they refused and shot their most unpopular officers. Other regiments sent to coerce them joined the mutineers. Twenty-five thousand soldiers variously composed of Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Finns and Ruthenians swept from place to place while prisons were stormed, prisoners released, the law courts set on fire, and the hives of the police smoked out.

A second telegram to the Czar brought the reply that he was bringing troops to quell the revolution and had turned over the army to the command of Ivanov. The Duma itself did not seem to fully realize the situation but elected an executive committee of twelve men to act as a provisional government.

Another committee, however, had been formed of workmen and social revolutionaries, which speedily gained a hearing. Every regiment that entered Petrograd went over to the revolution at

Official Canadian War Records.

"TIME'S UP! OVER YOU GO!"

The word comes from the officer, watch in hand, "Time's up! Over you go!" and instantly the men from the Dominion begin to climb out of the trench. The picture shows the departure of the first of the three or more lines or "waves" that moves forward over "No Man's Land" against the enemy trenches.

WARTIME TRAFFIC IN HOURGES

British tanks going forward into action, and German prisoners coming in.

once, and it quickly became apparent that the revolution had nothing to fear from the army.

The Committee of Twelve, who were moderates, tried to keep in harmony with the extremists of the Council of Labor. Everywhere was a babel of talk, argument and discussion of plans for the future. Moscow had accepted the revolution and the Czar was expected at any time.

On the 13th of March the first murders of a revolting character were carried out upon members of the police force. On March 14th the interest had practically centred in the relationship between the Executive Committee of the Duma and the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates—the Soviet—now so familiar to the world. The power was divided between these two bodies and it looked as if there might be civil war. Appeals by both were sent broadcast, among them one by the Socialists abolishing saluting and assuming authority to countermand the orders of the War Committee. The Duma issued an appeal calculated to attract the thinking man, but the appeals of the proletariat caught the fancy of hundreds of thousands of men who had tasted freedom for the first time in their lives.

On March 14th the Czar tried to reach Petrograd but his train was held up and later in the day, on the advice of the Duma and his guards, including the Grand Duke Nicholas, the Czar abdicated in favor of his brother as Regent.

The Moderates desired a constitutional monarchy; the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates clamoured for a republic. A coalition formed of representatives of all parties narrowly escaped disintegration when it was announced that a Regent had been appointed, but was saved by Kerenski. The Soviet, by a vote of 1,000 to 15 endorsed the new provisional government which then entered into office. On March 16th the Grand Duke Michael resigned the Regency, thus terminating the Romanof dynasty. The mediæval autocracy of Russia which had no place in the modern world collapsed from internal corruption. The revolution succeeded because there were none to defend the old régime.

On April 13th the first meeting of the Congress of Soviets from all over Russia was held. Though in favour of continuing the war the congress refused to permit the continuation of army discipline. The Bolsheviki (radical Socialist) minority, under Lenine,

demanded an immediate cessation of hostilities in order to get on with their class warfare. There is no doubt that Russia's sufferings had been the most prolonged and her people rendered almost hopeless. To such there can be no further miseries, and therefore it is not surprising that the Russian people seized hold of a formula which would, it seemed to them, get rid of all their oppressors at one fell swoop. Bolshevism was the reaction of a people, crushed into the dust, against its oppressors. The Bolsheviki represented approximately one-fifth of the Russian people, and the establishment of Bolshevism meant that this fifth, the poorest and most ignorant element among the working classes, would rule. Their theory was that since workmen were the sole creators of wealth they should exclusively control all political power.

Lenine, the leader of the Bolsheviki, was a scion of a noble Russian family named Uljanov. In 1900 he formed the extreme section of the Social Democrats in Switzerland, and thereafter travelled from country to country carrying on his propaganda of anarchy. His aim was to destroy the old social structure so that the oppressed might be freed at least of their taskmasters. He had been consistent and honest enough in pursuing his ideals for many long years but was quite willing to accept German gold and German assistance to further his objects.

As the Provisional Government was now no longer able to carry on, a new one was formed including a larger proportion of Socialists. Almost immediately it issued a declaration of policy stating among other things its approval of the continuation of the war. The allied governments replied cordially and sent special missions to Russia to establish working connection with the new régime.

Meanwhile the army, undermined by propaganda, appeals and orders from the Soviets, steadily disintegrated. Alexeiev, the Chief of Staff, resigned, while Kornilov had gone from Petrograd to an army command. Kerensky, now Minister of War, believing that only an offensive would restore the army morale, toured the Russian front inspiring the troops with his burning eloquence. He succeeded in not only inspiring the troops but also the Socialists with the spirit of the offensive.

The all-Russian Congress of Soviets met on June 16th and among other things had explained to them the fact that the Russian

Government was taking steps to summon an inter-allied conference for the revision of treaties, with the exception of the agreement of London in which all the Allies had pledged themselves not to conclude a separate peace. The congress on the whole supported the Russian Ministry.

Meanwhile, on account of the stagnation on the Russian front, Austria and Germany had withdrawn numerous divisions and batteries to the Italian and western fronts. As the spirit of offensive, created by Kerensky, grew, Brussilov decided to launch his attack towards Lemberg and renew the waning spirit of the Russian people. On June 29th the bombardment of the enemy trenches on the Strypa began and on July 1st the infantry attacked. By July 2d the Russians had taken 18,000 prisoners and 29 guns.

The eleventh Russian army attacked north of the Tarnapol-Lemberg railway, while Kornilov pressed forward along the Black Bistritza capturing 10,000 prisoners in three days.

There the revolutionary armies halted. Lack of discipline, desertion and propaganda had done their work; the Russian army had fought its last battle. On July 19th, south of the Dniester, one Russian regiment abandoned its position and by night the Russian front for twenty-five miles was deserted, while the soldier rabble streamed homeward. The disease rapidly spread from the eleventh army to the seventh and eighth armies and the Russian army had practically ceased to exist. The gallant and devoted soldiers who had carried out one of the most marvellous retreats in history, who had shown themselves to be perhaps the greatest infantrymen in the world and who had been able to withstand untold privations and misery, had become a flock of sheep willing to follow the lead of the dishevelled orators of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Council.

The revolution then underwent a stormy passage. Everywhere were riotous disturbances, and radicals, monarchists and anarchists seemed to be endeavouring to bring about a reign of terror. On July 20th Prince Lvov, the Premier, resigned and was succeeded by Kerensky who also remained Minister of War. In the new Government formed, Kerensky became virtual dictator, and his Government received the endorsation of the Congress of Soviets and the Council of Peasant Delegates. Kerensky, acting with much vigour, ordered the arrest of deserters and revolutionary

agitators. On July 23d the reorganized, all-Russian Councils of Workmen's and Peasants' Organizations denounced the mutinous spirit of the army, but, as already stated, it came too late. The army was demoralized.

On July 25th the death penalty which had been done away with was restored in the army through Kerensky threatening to resign. Publications inciting to insubordination in the army were suppressed, and a resolution censuring Lenine was passed with an overwhelming majority by the Soviet. On August 23d Kornilov became commander-in-chief of the Russian army and it began to look as if the revolution were going to weather the forces attempting to undermine and destroy what it was trying to accomplish.

On August 26th, at Moscow, a conference of 2,500 delegates, representing the Duma, the Soviets, and the Zemstovs of organized Russia, gathered in council. Kerensky, in a lengthy speech, reviewed the situation and claimed that the time had come for the revolution to consolidate what it had gained.

Kornilov, the commander-in-chief of the army, was received with prolonged cheers. He stated that the Russian army must be regenerated at any cost and recommended certain reform measures to be carried out. He was supported by General Kaledines, leader of the Don Cossacks, who openly defied the Bolsheviki elements. The congress clearly showed the difference between the radical element represented by Kerensky and the moderate represented by the generals of the army.

The capture of Riga by the Germans, shortly after the Moscow Conference, produced a great crisis in Russia. The Provisional Government was charged with the failure of the army, and the Grand Duke Michael and others were arrested on charges of conspiracy. On September 9th, Lvov, a deputy of the Duma, called upon Kerensky, stating that he had been sent from General Kornilov, with the support of certain Duma members, industrial interests and other conservatives, to demand the surrender of all power into Kornilov's hands.

Kerensky promptly denounced Kornilov as a traitor and removed him from the position as commander-in-chief.

To this action Kornilov replied by advancing with an army against Petrograd. Kerensky thereupon declared martial law in Moscow and Petrograd, created himself commander-in-chief of

the army and took measures to repel the rebels. The adventure failed to receive the support expected and Kornilov was arrested.

Towards the end of September at Moscow a democratic congress resolved to call a parliament consisting of 231 members; 110 of these were to be representatives of the Zemstovs and towns. It refused to sanction a coalition cabinet in which Constitutional Democrats should participate. Kerensky defied the congress and named a coalition cabinet in which several Constitutional Democrats were given portfolios.

Russia as Partitioned by the Brest-Litovsk Treaty

This new government declared that it intended to raise the fighting power of the army and navy, to fight anarchy and call a Constituent Assembly of 732 delegates elected by popular vote.

In the meantime the agitation against the Coalition Government continued and on November 1st Kerensky issued a statement to the Allies stating that Russia was worn out by the strain of war and claimed that since she had saved France and England from disaster early in the war, the Allies should now shoulder the burden.

A week later, on November 7th, an armed revolt against Premier

Kerensky and his coalition Government was precipitated by the Bolsheviki, led by Leon Trotzky, President of the Central Executive Committee of the Petrograd Council, and Lenine, the leader of the Bolsheviki. The telephone and telegraph companies, the State Bank and the Marie Palace were seized. The garrison of Petrograd went over to the Bolsheviki, and the Government troops were soon overpowered with the exception of the Military Cadets and the Women's Battalion which bravely held the Winter Palace for some hours.

On the same evening the Revolutionary Committee issued a proclamation denouncing Kerensky and his Government and called upon the soldiers of the army to arrest all officers who refused to join the revolution. They announced that an immediate peace would be brought about; that large proportional lands would be handed over to the peasants; that all authority was now in the hands of the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates and that the Constituent Assembly would be convoked.

The workmen and peasants at last controlled Russia. A Bolsheviki cabinet with Lenine as Premier and Trotzky as Foreign Minister was at once named. Kerensky raised a small force but was beaten by the Bolsheviki and fled. Russia began at once to go to pieces. The Ukraine and Finland declared their independence of the Central Government, as well as Siberia, the Caucasus, Lithuania, Bessarabia and other districts.

Arrangements for an armistice were immediately entered into with the Central Powers along the front from the Baltic to Asia Minor. During the chaotic condition which followed, the elections for the Constituent Assembly were held, and though the Bolsheviki were in the minority they persisted in carrying on.

The first conference in the negotiations for an armistice was held at the German headquarters at Brest-Litovsk. The Russian delegates included a sailor, a soldier and a librarian, and a suspension of hostilities was arranged for ten days.

Trotzky announced that the armistice would be signed only on condition that troops would not be transferred to other points. He also stated that the allied governments should declare the aims for which they were fighting. No official answers were made to this note.

At the meeting of the Constituent Assembly called for Decem-

ber 11th, less than 50 of the 600 delegates attended and the Bolsheviki influence seemed to be extending. On December 16th an armistice was signed to hold until January 14, 1918. The Bolsheviki were nothing if not thorough in their methods of destruction. Titles, distinctions and privileges were abolished. The property of the nobles, merchants and bourgeoisie was to be handed over to the state; all church lands, property, money and precious stones were also to pass into the hands of the state, while religious instruction was to cease in the schools. All loans and treasury bonds owned by foreign subjects in Russia or abroad were repudiated.

In spite of the formal protests of the allied governments, Lenine began overtures for a separate peace and the first meeting occurred on December 22, 1917. The terms not proving satisfactory to Russia, a second meeting was held at Brest-Litovsk on January 10, 1918.

The conference broke up in a clash over the evacuation of the Russian provinces. On January 24th the Russian delegates decided unanimously to reject the German terms. On January 29th a peace treaty between the Central Powers and the Ukraine was signed; the Bolsheviki yielded to the German demands but did not sign the treaty. On the day the armistice expired the armies of the Central Powers advanced and occupied several Russian cities and the Bolshevist Government announced that it would accept the German terms. A treaty was signed at Brest-Litovsk on March 3, 1918, which robbed Russia of about one-quarter of her area in Europe. Trotzky refused to sign the treaty and resigned his office, becoming chairman of the Petrograd Labour Commune. The treaty was formally denounced by the premiers and foreign ministers of the allied governments, all of whom refused to recognize it.

CHAPTER XXV

With Our Backs to the Wall

American troops were now landing in France but still had to be trained in actual warfare. On February 5, 1918, it was announced that American battalions were for the first time occupying part of the western battle line, but the great rush of American troops had not yet begun, and it was not anticipated that their weight would be felt till the spring of 1919. The massing of German reserves on the western front, however, was proceeding rapidly and the enemy entertained high hopes that he might administer a knock-out blow before America's strength was fully available.

Throughout March the Allies waited for the blow to fall; it was generally agreed that its full weight would be felt against the British in the Somme area but confidence prevailed that any enemy assault in strength would be held.

THE FIRST OF THE DESPERATE GERMAN DRIVES

On Thursday, March 21st, the enemy struck at the vital part of the allied front with the object of separating the French and British armies. In all, sixty-four German divisions took part in the operations the first day. On the British front attacked there were twenty-nine infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions, of which nineteen infantry divisions were actually in the line. Launched on a 54-mile front the attack spread until a 63-mile front was involved. On the whole of the British front attacked during the month, seventy-three German divisions were engaged against the Third and Fifth British armies and the right of the First British army with a total of thirty-four infantry divisions. Before April 9th, four more British infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions had been used against the enemy on this front.

At 5 A. M. an enemy bombardment of great intensity, with gas and high explosive shell from all kinds of artillery and trench mortars, was opened upon the British line from the Oise to the Scarpe River. A heavy white fog covered the ground, hiding from

the artillery and machine gunners the S. O. S. signals sent up. The British defensive system consisted in the distribution of troops in depth. With this object, three defensive belts had been constructed at considerable distances from each other, but had not all been completed in the forward area. The advanced system consisted of a lightly held outpost screen covering our main positions. Since artillery and machine gun support was not available on account of the S. O. S. signals not being seen through the fog, the enemy forced his way into our foremost defensive zone. Our machine guns and forward field guns which had been placed to cover this zone with their fire were robbed almost entirely of their effect, and the detachments holding the outpost positions were consequently overwhelmed or surrounded.

The attack had been expected and battle stations manned; on all parts of the front the garrisons of redoubts and strong points held out with the greatest gallantry; acts of heroism which had never been excelled in the annals of British arms were performed in great numbers on that day, and many garrisons, surrounded by the enemy, fought on without any possibility of rescue until every man had been killed or captured. The weight of the enemy attack was too great however for the forces at our disposal and the enemy made steady progress, employing a rolling barrage fire timed at ten-minute intervals, alternating poison gas shells with shrapnel. The Germans broke our line by adopting the principle that lines of trenches and barbed wire were of little use if the defenders were dead, and that therefore the essential thing was to destroy the defenders.

On the Third British army front, though the defences had been broken at certain points, the army held. South of St. Quentin where the line was thin and reserves were not available the enemy made considerable progress and that same evening General Gough, commander of the Fifth British army, began to retreat. On March 22d the retreat was continued, the army fighting continuously with great valour. All the available reserves at the disposal of the fifth army had already been thrown into the fight, and, except for one French division and some French cavalry, no further support was in reach of the fighting line. On March 23d arrangements were made with the French commander-in-chief to take over as rapidly as possible the front held by the Fifth British army

south of Peronne, and for the concentration of a strong force of French divisions on the southern portion of the battle front.

Measures were taken to obtain a special force of reserve divisions from the First and Second British armies for use as occasion might demand. The Canadian Corps was also held in readiness to counter-attack in case the enemy succeeded in piercing the British front.

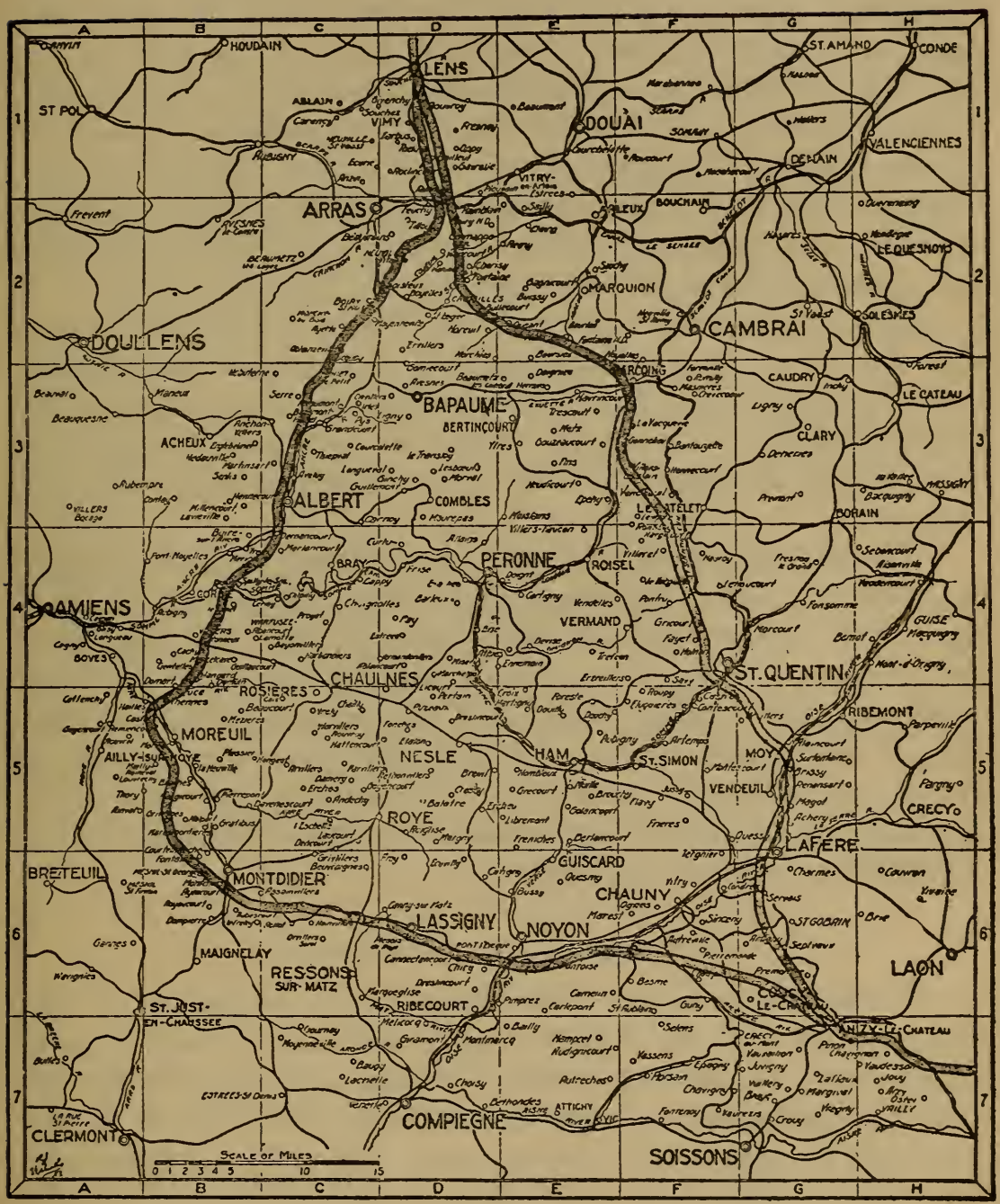
After two days of desperate fighting the British had fallen back from before St. Quentin as far as the Somme near Peronne. Ham was also lost together with Chaulny farther south on the Oise. Altogether about two-thirds of the territory evacuated in the German retreat was again overrun by the enemy under General von der Marwitz, who claimed 30,000 prisoners and 600 guns. At the northern end of the line attacked the Germans under von Buelow were substantially held, though they succeeded in capturing the Monchy Heights southeast of Arras.

Once over the Somme the southern retreat continued. Bapaume fell on March 24th, and Nesle and Noyon had to be abandoned. By March 26th the Allies had been pressed beyond their defence line of 1916. The railway junction at Chaulnes and the important centre of Roye had been evacuated and the enemy, after the fall of Montdidier, came within twelve miles of Amiens. The German effort was now, however, becoming spent, and progress became much slower as the Allies threw re-enforcements into the line. On April 5th, after the enemy had been heavily defeated and the fight had become practically stabilized, a fresh German thrust was made against the British in the Armentières section. In the Somme and Picardy offensive the enemy claimed 75,000 prisoners.

THE SECOND OFFENSIVE TOWARDS YPRES

As the Picardy offensive died down the enemy, on April 9th, launched a new attack on the Lys front with Armentières as its immediate objective. Following their initial success, which gave them Neuve Chapelle and Faugissant, the enemy forced the Portuguese division and the British backward for three and a half miles. Next day the front was attacked for another ten miles north of Armentières which thereby became outflanked on both sides.

Southward the enemy pushed forward to Estaires and Bac



DETAIL MAP OF THE DESPERATE PICARDY DRIVE

Showing the ground covered by the Germans in the drive launched by them on March 21, 1918. Though they made a deep dent in the allied line, they failed in their main object which was the separating of the French and British armies.

St. Maur and on the north in Ploegsteert Woods. Armentières was filled with gas shells and had to be abandoned on April 10th. The enemy had already claimed 20,000 prisoners and 200 guns. On April 11th the enemy had crossed the Lawe, a tributary of the Lys and the threat to our communications became a grave one. In the afternoon a gap was forced in our line southeast of Bailleul. In the evening a brigade of the Thirty-third British division, together with a body of cyclists, a pioneer battalion, and every available man from schools and re-enforcement camps came into action there and re-established the line.

Next day in front of the Nieppe Forest determined attacks, with the aid of armoured cars and field guns at point-blank range, were made upon our lines. The fighting then was of the most bitter description, the enemy forcing his way past our posts by sheer weight of numbers so that our men were firing to the front and rear.

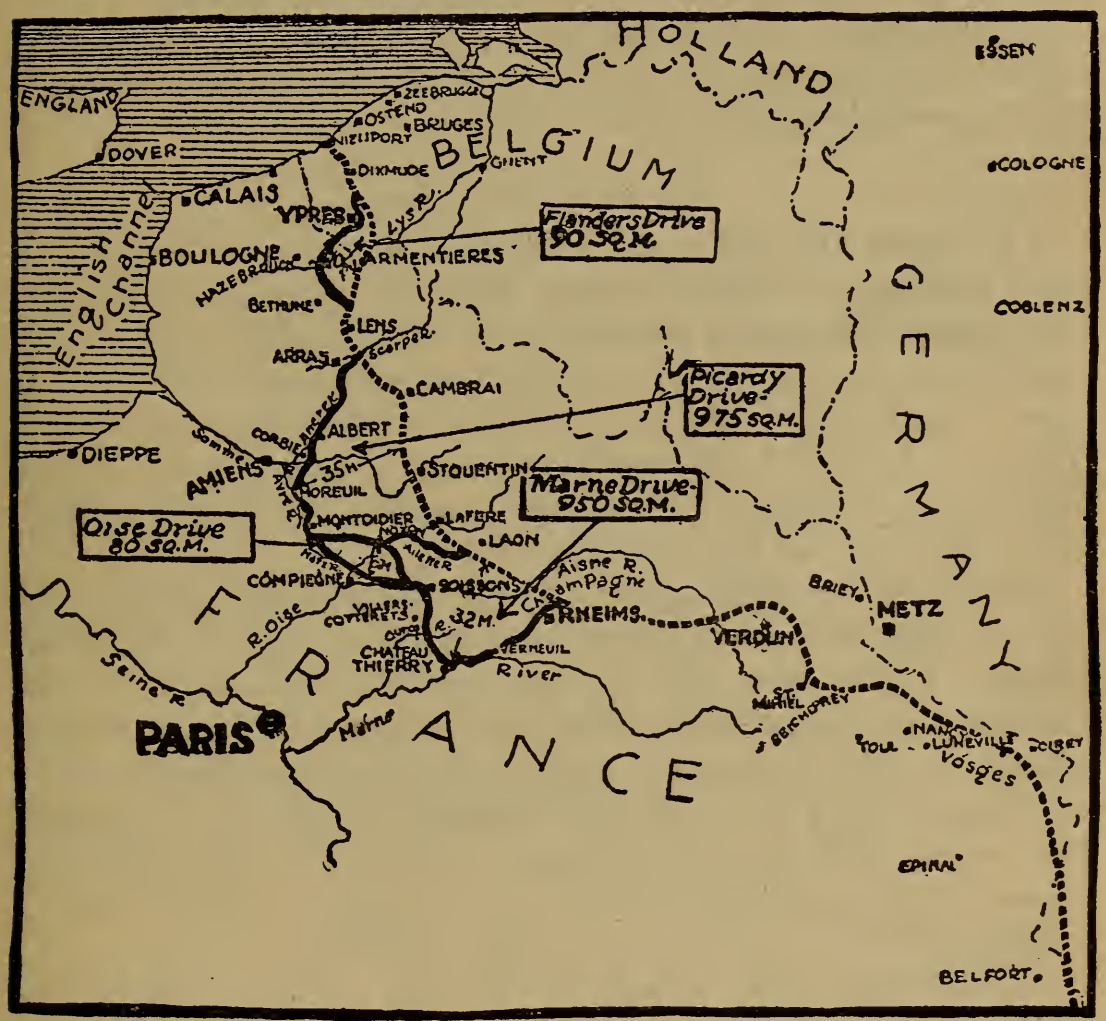
The line here had become very attenuated and the fighting of the British, particularly the Fourth Guards brigade, was marvellous. The gallant stand of these troops enabled the First Australian division to detrain and enter the line; the road to Hazebrouk was then definitely closed and our line established along the edge of the Nieppe Forest. The action of the troops in fighting in the Lys Valley was particularly noteworthy because practically the whole of them had been brought straight out of the Somme battlefield to rest and reorganize.

"WITH OUR BACKS TO THE WALL"

The desperate nature of the crisis may be judged by the fact that on April 12th Sir Douglas Haig issued to the troops a memorable Order of the Day which explained that the enemy was evidently attempting to separate the British and French armies and break through to the Channel ports. His order concluded with the words:

> There is no other course open to us but to fight it out. Every position must be held to the last man; there must be no retirement. With our backs to the wall and believing in the justice of our cause, each one of us must fight on to the end.
>
> The safety of our homes and the freedom of mankind depend alike upon the conduct of each one of us at this critical moment.

The enemy was now in possession of Bailleul, however, and was swarming over the slopes of the famous Messines Ridge. Four days of stubborn fighting ensued before that line was overrun, and its loss compelled us to withdraw from Passchendaele, Gheluvelt, Poelcapelle and Langemarck, all obtained at such a heavy price in the awful winter fighting of 1917.



Gains Made by Germans in Final Offensive

In the south Merville had gone but every effort to widen out the southern corner of the salient at Givenchy was prevented by the magnificent defence of the First British army. In the sector from La Bassée past Lens to Arras the old line, anchored by Vimy, held firm. This prevented the collapse which would have marked the breaking down of the angle between the two German salients, and the widening of these into one huge depression.

Failing to break through the angle at Givenchy the enemy endeavoured to enlarge his gains within the newly-won territory. On April 24th he gained Villers-Bretonneux, and in the north that great bastion, Kemmel Hill, six miles southwest of Ypres. The ridges behind Kemmel, however, were held, effectively blocking the Ypres road. On May 8th another strong attempt to take Ypres failed, thus bringing to an end the invasion in the north.

Immediately the German attacks ceased the Allies began to nibble at the enemy line, improving their positions in preparation for the inevitable great counter-offensive.

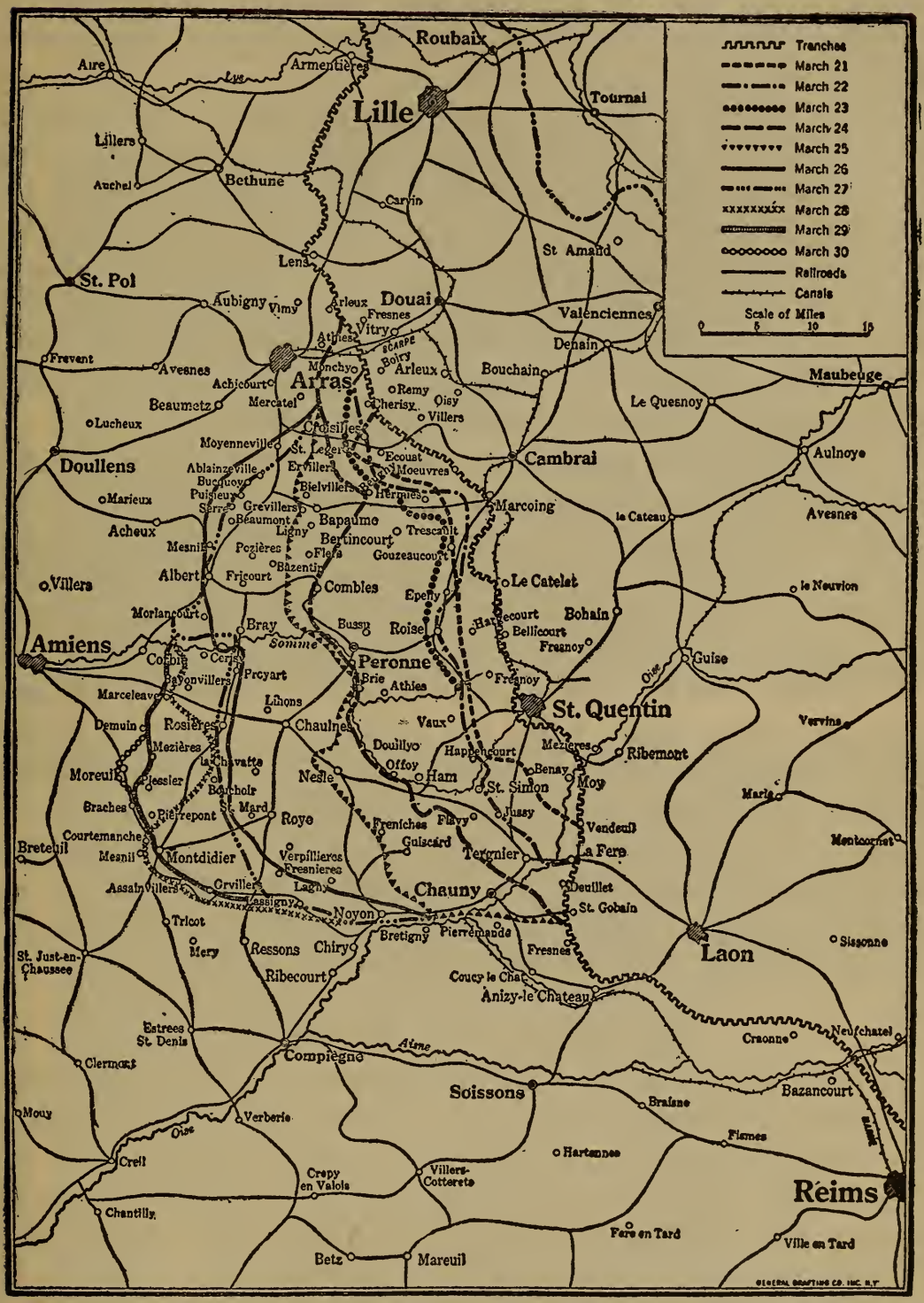
THE DRIVE AT PARIS

The third and last of the series of great attacks which constituted the last desperate German offensive began on May 27th. This tremendous assault along the ridge on the heights north of the Aisne River was supported by tanks and was pressed regardless of losses. On the first night they had stormed the Chemin des Dames Ridge; on May 28th the enemy was across the Aisne on an 18-mile front and had forced passages across the Vesle, twelve miles forward of the line they had left two days before.

On May 29th Soissons fell and the enemy thrust towards the Marne along the Rheims-Paris railway. On May 31st Amiens, suffering badly from shell attacks and air bombardments, was evacuated by the civilian population. Rheims was being severely pressed on both sides and the enemy's advanced posts were on the Marne along a 10-mile front, from Château-Thierry to Dormans. The enemy had advanced twenty-six miles in four days, had claimed 45,000 prisoners, 400 guns, thousands of machine guns, a complete aerodrome and vast quantities of stores.

Long-range guns, capable of throwing a shell seventy miles, were now bombarding Paris and yet Foch held his hand. No serious attempt was made to counter-attack on promising sectors of the front elsewhere in order to relieve the pressure. The master strategist was patiently biding his time and developing his army of manœuvre.

On June 2d the enemy had arrived within forty miles of Paris on the edge of the Forest of Villers-Cotterets. There and between Noyon and Soissons the French began counter-attacking and mastering the situation. Between Rheims and Dormans,



How the Enemy Advanced From Day to Day

Map showing the successive gains made in the first desperate drive.

Franco-British troops were holding firm, new French divisions began coming into the line and the Americans had appeared at Veuilly-la-Potterie, northwest of Château-Thierry—the nearest point to Paris.

The Germans on June 9th made another violent effort to widen their front between the two big salients by attacking between Montdidier and Noyon on a front of twenty-two miles. Twenty-five German divisions were employed for this purpose, and though a few miles were gained on a narrow front, and the enemy claimed another 13,000 prisoners, it became evident that the German effort was exhausting itself. The winning back of ground northwest of Château-Thierry and the appearance of Italian troops in this area were significant indications of Foch's future intention.

On June 18th assaults against the city of Rheims failed. From that time on the allied armies began counter-attacking on a small scale all along the line. In June the British alone captured nearly 2,000 prisoners on the western front, the French took 1,000 prisoners in one operation and numerous small allied successes were gained.

On July 15th the enemy again began an offensive on a large scale, the sector chosen being the front on both sides of Rheims about twenty-five miles in each direction. Thirty-five German divisions were employed. On the second day they crossed the Marne a few miles east of Château-Thierry, but after pressing back American troops, they were driven back by them with the loss of a thousand prisoners. East of Rheims they were also brought to a standstill and the great German offensive came to an end.

THE BRITISH ARMY REORGANIZED

While intense activity prevailed behind the British lines after our defeat the fighting troops were not idle, and in the Lys salient particularly the damage caused to the enemy by our artillery was very great. During the month of May, infantry activity on the front of the Second and Fourth British armies improved our positions by the capture of places like Merris and Ridge Wood.

Two months had worked marvels in the British army. Drafts of 325,000 vigorous young men from England and Scotland had largely been absorbed, and the number of effective infantry divisions had risen from forty-five to fifty-two; while in artillery, we were

GENERAL SIR WILLIAM R. ROBERTSON
Chief of the Imperial General Staff

GENERAL SIR DOUGLAS HAIG
Commander-in-Chief of the British forces in France

Photo by Central News Photo Service.

A FOREST OF BAYONETS

The might of the British Empire is typified in this impressive scene on the battlefields of France at a review of Canadian and British troops, held to commemorate the beginning of the fourth year of the War.

stronger than we had ever been. Large operations now became possible to strengthen our defences and fit them in with future schemes.

The first of these, on the 28th of June, drove the enemy from the edge of Nieppe Forest on a 6,000-yard front. On July 4th the Australian corps recaptured our old positions east of Hamel and, co-operating with sixty tanks, cleared the Villers-Bretonneux Plateau. In this affair 1,500 prisoners were taken. North of the Lys Australian patrols captured 223 German prisoners in two days, showing that the enemy morale had declined. On July 19th the Ninth division took Meteren with 359 prisoners.

By the end of July the reconstitution of the British armies had been completed. The spirit of the men was as high as ever, and the success of the various local operations had had a good effect.

While our troops were still fighting southwest of Rheims, a fresh battle had broken out on June 7th on the French front between Noyon and Montdidier. Anticipating a German attack east and west of Rheims, General Foch withdrew the whole of the eight French divisions in Flanders to the south. In addition, General Foch asked that four British divisions be moved, two of them south of the Somme, and two astride that river. On July 13th, Marshal Foch asked that these four divisions be despatched to take their place behind the junction of the allied armies. Accordingly the Twenty-second British corps was despatched to the French front.

It was perfectly clear that Germany had intended to crush our first line with overwhelming masses and push through into the open country beyond. This plan counted upon the breaking down of the allied resistance at the start. Captured orders indicated that the enemy anticipated that the allied resistance would weaken as he pressed forward. His effort and his calculations failed. Our line was pressed back but not broken. Instead of weakening, our defence became stronger as the enemy advanced farther from his bases. His progress, instead of increasing from day to day gradually slowed down. The Allies had retired steadily with equanimity, firmly convinced that the enemy had thrown his last card on the table in the great gamble for world power. His reckless tactics and huge losses failed to bring about that great object for which he had striven—the defeat of the allied armies, and his very failure to

achieve that object was in itself a colossal defeat. For it finally demonstrated to the German staff and the German soldier that in spite of their vaunted "efficiency" they were incapable of destroying the allied armies. The superior morale of the Allies and their faith in the justice of their cause would not even admit the possibility of defeat.

At the end of April, 1918, many cheering messages poured in to the Field Marshal, Sir Douglas Haig, including ones from King George, the Governor-General of Canada and President Wilson.

King George sent the following message to Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig:

I can assure you that the fortitude, courage and self-sacrifice with which the troops under your command continue so heroically to resist superior numbers are realized by me and my people. The Empire stands calm and confident in its soldiers. May God bless them and give them strength in this time of trial.

Sir Douglas Haig sent the following reply to the King's message:

Your Majesty's gracious message has given universal encouragement to the whole army in France. I beg Your Majesty to accept our respectful and grateful thanks and the assurance that we will steadfastly continue to do our utmost to deserve the inspiring confidence Your Majesty and the people throughout the Empire have placed in us in this hour of national stress.

President Wilson cabled Field Marshal Haig, congratulating him on the British stand against the German offensive, and predicting a final allied victory.

The President's message read:

May I not express to you my warm admiration of the splendid steadfastness and valour with which your troops have withstood the German onset and the perfect confidence all Americans feel that you will win a secure and final victory.

Sir Douglas cabled in reply:

Your message of generous appreciation of the steadfastness and valour of our soldiers in the great battle now raging has greatly touched us all. Please accept our heartfelt thanks. One and all believe in the justice of our cause, and are determined to fight on without counting the cost until the freedom of mankind is safe.

PLAN OF THE ALLIES' OFFENSIVE

At the middle of July the definite collapse of the enemy offensive and the striking success of the allied counter-offensive south of the Aisne effected a complete change in the whole military situation. The German army had made its effort and had failed. While its maximum strength had now passed, the allied strength had steadily increased through the incorporation of the fresh reserves.

The British army was now ready for the offensive and the new American army, under General Pershing, was growing rapidly.

Divisions of American troops had been trained with the French army and altogether the United States had 2,000,000 men in France. Though most of them yet lacked actual experience and were not available for front line work, their actual presence in France had a tremendous moral effect on both the enemy and allied armies. Those in the field had already given convincing proof of their fighting ability.

ON THE ITALIAN FRONT

At the end of October, 1917, Germany was clearly alarmed at the prospect of her Austrian ally's being overwhelmed by the Italians, and, in spite of the allied offensive at Ypres and on the Aisne, managed to send six divisions, consisting probably of 100,000 men, as re-enforcements to her ally. The Austrians had also rushed forces from the Russian front to the Italian theatre while the Italian front was taken over by the German General Staff.

When the Austro-German armies attacked the Italians on October 24th their success was immediate. As on the Russian front, success came largely through propaganda, for the enemy had carried on a campaign to undermine Italian morale unprecedented for boldness and mendacity. The British and French successes paled into insignificance beside the terrible defeat inflicted upon the Italian army on the Upper Isonzo.

There was no doubt that a desperate effort was being made to put Italy, like Russia, out of the war. Accordingly all the relief possible was given by hammering away on the Belgian front. In order to stiffen the Italian army British and French troops were despatched to Italy arriving in time to participate in the battle along the Piave River.

During the retreat, largely occasioned by treachery in the second Italian army, that army alone lost 100,000 men in prisoners and 700 guns. A million men, encumbered by all the impediments of an army, and all the fleeing civilians of the country, struggled over the choked roads leading to the Tagliamento River. Nothing during the war had been seen like it. By a narrow margin the third Italian army reached and crossed the Tagliamento River, losing some divisions and 500 guns, and for a moment there was a pause. Two hundred thousand men and 1,800 guns had already been lost.

By November 10th the Italian armies, under Cadorna, were everywhere back on the Piave River, along which it had been determined to make a stand. A desperate struggle then ensued, but the Austrian offensive was stayed with the aid of the Twelfth French corps, the Fourteenth British corps, under Sir Herbert Plumer, and French and British batteries.

On November 5th the Prime Ministers of Great Britain and France and their staffs met Premier Orlando of Italy at the Italian village of Rapallo and there evolved an Allied Council to be stationed at Versailles, which eventually resulted in a unified western command under General Foch.

By the New Year the front had quieted down and the Austrian commanders were left once more to their own devices by the Germans, who were planning their huge offensive on the western front. One great result of this debacle was the welding of Italy into a closer union; her military power had been badly shaken, much of her army equipment and artillery had been lost, but Italy rose splendidly to the task of reorganization, and with the help of British and French troops who had arrived in December to stiffen the Italian army, was able not only to heroically meet the next Austrian attack but to completely turn the tables on the enemy and eventually force surrender.

On June 15th, 1918, the Austrians attacked along the entire Italian line eastward from the Asiago Plateau to the sea. They succeeded in crossing the Piave at two points and claimed 10,000 prisoners, but it was clear on the third day that their offensive was a failure. The Piave River suddenly rose in flood, washing away the Austrian bridges and, attempting to recross, the enemy was severely beaten, with the loss of 16,000 prisoners.

The attack died down but the Italian army steadily worked away, clearing the whole Piave delta and enlarging the zone for the protection of Venice. In these operations 7,000 more prisoners and sixty-three guns were taken.

Throughout the heavy actions on the French and Belgian fronts and the period of the Turkish and Bulgarian breakdown, the Italian army was kept by the allied commander-in-chief standing idle, waiting for the right moment to strike.

THE CONQUEST OF RUMANIA

It will be remembered that in the spring of the year 1918 the Central Powers carried everything before them in Western Europe and the Balkans.

In the autumn of 1917, though our Russian ally had become demoralized, the Rumanian army resisted the German army, under von Mackensen, with desperate valour. With the Russian defection, however, part of the front originally held by 500,000 Russians had to be taken over and held by the Rumanian army, already weakened by earlier fighting.

The peace signed by the Ukraine on February 10th, 1918, followed by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk on March 3d, left Rumania completely isolated and helpless. Delegates from Rumania were then summoned to German headquarters and given four days to surrender. Most of the Rumanian generals believed they could fight for another month, the period for which they were supplied with ammunition. The Rumanian Cabinet resigned and the new Government agreed that there was nothing to do but to acquiesce in the onerous terms imposed by Germany, and on May 7th the Treaty of Bucharest was signed. Among other clauses of the treaty the Germans stipulated that a new Commission to control the Danube River be set up, from which Commission representatives of Great Britain, France and Italy were to be excluded.

WAR AIMS

The Russian revolution followed by the capture of Russia by the Bolshevik element; the Italian disaster on the Isonzo and the Cambrai misadventure had caused a great reversal of hopes among the Allies and stimulated the enemy to make renewed efforts. Among the Allies there was much heart-searching and

self-examination, moods which the enemy endeavored to take advantage of to sow the seeds of disunion.

A discussion as to war aims was launched by a letter from Lord Lansdowne who suggested the possibility of a peace by negotiation. His proposals were greeted with scorn except by the professional British pacifist element. In the American Congress, on December 4th, President Wilson stated that peace could not even be discussed with the present rulers of Germany. On December 14th, Lloyd George said that a real peace involved reparation for damage done as well as punishment of the wrongdoer.

The Labour Party drew up a memorandum of war aims which was accepted by the Socialist and Inter-Allied Labour Conference held in London shortly afterward. The publication by the Bolsheviki of various secret treaties of the Allies showed clearly that the aims of 1915 were no longer the aims of 1917, for in the interval a certain internationalism had grown up. It was recognized that neither the destruction of the enemy nor readjustments involving the maintenance of huge armies could result in peace and security; that could only result from some international organization such as a League of Nations with power to keep any refractory nations in order.

The British Premier, Mr. Lloyd George, on January 5, 1918, issued a statement declaring what Britain was fighting for. It included these points:

1. The complete restoration of Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro, France, Italy and Rumania.
2. Reparation for all losses by those nations.
3. Restoration of Alsace-Lorraine.
4. Independence of Poland.
5. Self-government for Austro-Hungarian nationalities.
6. Satisfaction of Italy and Rumania of legitimate irridentist claims.
7. Internationalization of sea route between Mediterranean and Black Seas.
8. Recognition of national character of Arabia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine.
9. German African colonies to be at disposal of a conference.
10. Reparation for damages done in defiance of international law, particularly as regards submarine campaign.
11. The creation of an international organization to limit armaments and reduce the possibility of war.

This statement of Lloyd George's would have proved much stronger had he made the creation of the international organization

the main feature of the code and the principle upon which the various allied demands were to be related and eventually secured.

Three days later, on January 8th, President Wilson issued a similar document embodying his now famous fourteen points. These were:

1. Open covenants of peace and no secret diplomacy in the future.
2. Absolute freedom of navigation in peace and war outside territorial waters, except when seas may be closed by international action.
3. Removal as far as possible of all economic barriers.
4. Adequate guarantees for the reduction of national armaments.
5. An absolutely impartial adjustment of colonial claims, the interests of the peoples concerned having equal weight with the claims of the Government whose title is to be determined.
6. All Russian territory to be evacuated and Russia given full opportunity for self-development, the Powers aiding.
7. Complete restoration of Belgium in full and free sovereignty.
8. All French territory freed, and the wrong done by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine righted.
9. Readjustment of Italian frontiers on lines of nationality.
10. People of Austria-Hungary accorded an opportunity of autonomous development.
11. Rumania, Serbia and Montenegro evacuated, Serbia given access to the sea, relations of Balkan states settled on lines of allegiance and nationality.
12. Non-Turkish nationalities in the Ottoman Empire assured of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles to be permanently free to all ships.
13. An Independent Polish State.
14. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

With the exception of those referring to the freedom of the seas and open covenants of peace, the fourteen points were practically the same as those given out by Mr. Lloyd George some days before.

To the general features of Mr. Wilson's document the German and Austrian Governments agreed but refused to consider the specific questions such as the restoration of Belgium, Alsace-Lorraine and those referring to the Balkan States, Turkey and Poland. Military preparations were then well under way which made serious talk about conditions of peace from the Allies ridiculous to the German High Command.

CABINET CHANGES

In all of the warring nations there was more or less trouble. The United States had to cope with the activities of enemy aliens within their borders. In Austria there was a general strike of workmen and in Germany there were serious strikes at Berlin, Hamburg, Munich and Kiel, all of which were put down with armed force. In France the ministry fell and the President boldly entrusted M. Clemenceau—"The Tiger"—with the responsibility of forming a new Government.

In Great Britain the war cabinet of Lloyd George in spite of mistakes had on the whole done well. The army had been increased by 821,000 men, while 731,000 men and 804,000 women had been placed in civil employment in Great Britain. Six hundred and twenty-four thousand more tons of shipping had been produced than in the previous year, and the amount of goods brought to the country by 100 tons of shipping had jumped from 106 to 150 tons. The number of guns in France had been increased by thirty per cent, and the number of aeroplanes was two and a half times as great as in the year preceding.

The work of Lord Rhondda and Mr. Clynes in controlling the supply and distribution of staple food supplies under extraordinarily difficult conditions was one of the tasks brilliantly carried out by those able men. The heavy work carried on by Lord Rhondda caused his death, and he was mourned by the whole people who knew of his magnificent work.

In the navy Sir John Jellicoe was succeeded by Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, who had been in charge of the convoy which carried the first Canadian contingent to Europe. The sinkings of merchant ships had become less than the number being launched and the submarine menace was steadily being overcome.

The Zeppelin had been replaced by aeroplanes for the bombing of England and a considerable amount of damage was done though it had no effect on the maintenance of our air service on the continent. An Air Ministry had been established in England and the Royal Naval Air Service and Royal Flying Corps were united in one service known as the Royal Air Force.

The new Allied Council at Versailles, whose business was to co-ordinate military action on the western front, and prepare recommendations for the various governments, consisted of General

Cadorna for Italy, General Foch for France, General Sir Henry Wilson for Great Britain, and General Bliss for the United States. These distinguished generals were speedily called away to other work and as the result of an attempt to increase the power of the Versailles Council, Sir William Robertson, Chief of the Imperial General Staff, resigned. His place was taken by Sir Henry Wilson, a man of broad experience and marked natural gifts, who was *persona grata* to the French Staff.

There was much acrimonious discussion in Great Britain as to whether the politicians were overriding the military authorities or not. On the whole, though the retention of too many trained divisions in England was a constant source of irritation to the British Staff, there was no evidence to indicate that a single move had been made on any British front except on the advice of the British General Staff.

On April 18, 1918, a month after the great German offensive had been launched, Lord Derby, Secretary of State for War, became British Ambassador to France and was succeeded by that remarkably intellectual administrator and devoted public servant, Lord Milner.

CHAPTER XXVI

The Glorious Affair of Zeebrugge

The little group of islands in the North Sea known as Great Britain, with a total area of 121,000 square miles, could be easily set down in old Southern Ontario. Yet it is the centre of a commonwealth of nations upon whose vast territories the sun never sets. Its 13,150,000 square miles of territory girdle the globe and 450,000,000 souls acknowledge the democratic sovereignty of the British Crown.

Not one inch of British territory was invaded by Germany during the four years of war—because the British navy commanded the seas.

In 1918, between April 1st and July 1st, 900,000 United States soldiers crossed the ocean to France. That is an average of 300,000 a month or 10,000 a day. With the exception of 291 lives lost when the Germans torpedoed the *Tuscania*, the crossing was made as if the U-boats had never existed.

Two-thirds of those American soldiers crossed in vessels of the British Merchant Marine. The transportation of those American troops was possible because the British navy had commanded the sea since the 4th of August, 1914. Had it not been for the British fleet the United States would have had to face practically single-handed a Europe of which Germany was the indisputable master.

"What is the navy doing?" was a question thoughtlessly asked by British and Americans alike during the war. The navy worked in silence and obscurity. Day and night, in sunshine and storm, in summer and winter, however, the British navy was alert and watchful.

The British navy effectually baffled the hopes and plans of Germany to win the war with U-boats.

Blockaded Germany and bottled up the German navy.

Drove German commerce from the sea.

Preserved the British Empire from invasion.

Brought Germany to the verge of starvation.

Enabled the British Empire to wage war in seven different theatres.

Kept the high seas open for the legitimate service of mankind.

Made ultimate defeat of Germany absolutely certain, no matter how long delayed.

In the light of these facts and figures the conclusion is forced upon one that but for the British fleet the war might have been over and won by Germany years before. Unless the Allies had been completely triumphant at the outset of the war at sea no effort on land would have saved them. The British fleet is mainly responsible for that triumph.

Lord Fisher who, during the war resigned as First Sea Lord after a quarrel with Winston Churchill, had long before earned the undying gratitude of his country.

He revolutionized methods of naval warfare; he produced the first Dreadnought: he trained the navy to fight in the North Sea.

Lord Fisher was steeped in the Nelson tradition; probably no one except Mahan had ever studied Nelson's strategy like he had.

He found that the great principles of naval warfare were better understood by Nelson than any other man before or since. Hence the remark credited to Fisher that Nelson was the greatest man who ever lived. It was Nelson who said: "Your battle ground should be your drilling ground," and when he was chief of the British navy, Fisher put that precept into practice. Every ship on foreign service was called home on some pretext or other to do its patrol work in the North Sea.

Fisher said: "I wanted it to nose about in the fogs, smelling different patches of pea-soupiness, sniffing and peering until it could say, 'Hullo, here; the Dogger Bank,' and feel it had met a friend. What hope would the fleet have had of victory called from the bright sunshine and blue air of the Mediterranean to fight a battle in the fogs of the North Sea?"

He added: "There they were with white-topped caps and linen trousers, with beautiful polished decks and shining brass work, living in a yachtsman's paradise, and God was saying every hour as loud as Sinai's thunder that Armageddon would be fought in the pea-soup of the North Sea."

In 1908 Admiral Fisher put into writing his firm conviction that Germany and Great Britain would be at war in 1914—when the Kiel Canal improvements were completed. In his opinion in regard to naval matters he apparently had the royal support of King Edward. It was doubtless the King's influence with France that made it possible for British warships to be withdrawn from the Mediterranean and transferred to the North Sea.

To Lord Fisher is given the credit of producing the Dreadnought—a type of ship that was fast, yet heavily armoured, and would carry heavier guns than any other ship. The Dreadnought revolutionized naval strategy for it rendered all existing types of battleships obsolete. And when the Dreadnought was being carefully reproduced by German shipbuilders, Lord Fisher was evolving the Superdreadnought which put the Dreadnought out of date and compelled Germany to enlarge the Kiel Canal to accommodate the newer type of vessel.

It was Great Britain's salvation to control the seas, for on that control her very existence depended. When war broke out, therefore, it was to be expected that British naval ingenuity would be able to defeat any devices of the enemy. As will be seen in the chapter on the battle of Jutland, the British did not give the Germans sufficient credit for possessing scientific and engineering skill—the possession of which enabled German naval engineers to evolve several devices that counted heavily in actual naval fighting.

Nevertheless the ingenuity and resourcefulness which had been such a marked characteristic of British seamen all through the centuries still stood them in good stead.

The elaboration of floating platforms capable of carrying the heaviest naval guns and manœuvring in shallow water was a complete surprise. And when they enfiladed the German lines in Belgium for six miles inland as early as the autumn of 1914, they ruined the German plan to win the road by the sea to Calais. Later on the same type of ship, of such shallow draft that they could not be torpedoed effectively, replaced capital ships of the British navy in the waters off Gallipoli.

There were other secrets, well kept, which had much to do with the failure of the German submarine campaign.

With German science and German skill concentrated on win-

ning the war by submarines, it looked at one time as if the Germans were gaining in the race of producing offensive measures faster than we could evolve methods of meeting them. Every day brought tales of sinkings, burnings and sickening murders on the high seas. But the courage and devotion of the naval men did not fail. They decided that German frightfulness should be repaid in kind.

The German practice of waging war against unarmed shipping was to first discharge a torpedo at sight, on the principle that the least said the soonest mended. If the torpedo missed its mark the submarine broke surface and fired a shot across the bows of the vessel. The merchantman then had two alternatives; to take to his heels and try to escape, or heave to and abandon the ship. In the latter case the submarine came close up and summoned the boats alongside. At the muzzle of a revolver the captain was ordered into the submarine with his papers and the crew of his boat directed to row a party of German sailors, bearing bombs, back to the ship. The bombs were then placed aboard, the ship looted and the derelict sent to the bottom.

The navy noted these Hun methods and after due consideration opined that it had solved the submarine problem. They evolved the "Hush ship."

A "Hush ship" was a ship disguised as a tramp steamer and carrying concealed armament. They plied on trade routes and when they were hailed by submarines promptly surrendered.

Enough men were left on board to operate the hidden guns. When the submarine came close the guns were put into operation and the U-boats sent to the bottom. This practice was exceedingly annoying to the German naval authorities for they had no means of knowing when and how their U-boats had been captured. They simply disappeared. It was another case of brains being used to offset superior mechanical equipment.

BLOCKING THE HARBOUR OF ZEEBRUGGE

In no case during the whole war did the valour and tradition of the British navy shine more brilliantly than in the affair of Zeebrugge.

The submarine base of Zeebrugge was protected by the Mole, a mile long and eighty yards in width, fortified by seven heavy

guns facing one way and three facing another. There were also many batteries of German guns on the shore. The approach to the channel was blocked by sunken dredges and mines in such a manner that the only way to reach it was under the point-blank range of the German heavy batteries. There were also German batteries all along the shore to the south, some of them with a range of twenty-three miles. The harbour was full of destroyers. Enemy aeroplanes kept watch from the air in the day. Searchlights and flares made it seemingly impossible to approach within miles at night. In short, the idea of approaching the harbour and sinking ships across the channel would have seemed to a German the acme of madness.

The British navy planned to render that annoying base of Zeebrugge useless. For five months the preparations went on. Every sailor, and they were all volunteers, was thoroughly drilled in his part. And finally before the raid each man was taken into the confidence of the officers as to the plan, so that if all the officers were shot down the men could carry on.

At last the time came for the great adventure. The night of April 22, 1918, being favourable for an attack, the ships took up their positions some three miles off Zeebrugge. Three of the cruisers, *Intrepid*, *Iphigenia* and *Thetis*, each duly packed with concrete and with mines attached to their bottoms for the purpose of sinking them in the neck of the canal, were aimed at Zeebrugge; two others, similarly prepared, were directed at Ostend. The function of the *Vindictive*, with the ferry-boats *Iris* and *Daffodil*, was to attack the great half-moon Mole which guards the harbour of Zeebrugge, land bluejackets and marines upon it, destroy what guns, stores and Germans she could find, and generally create a diversion while the block-ships ran in and sank themselves in their appointed places.

Enveloped by a dense smoke screen, the *Vindictive* headed in towards the Mole, with bluejackets and marines standing ready for the landing. It was not until the ship was close to the Mole that the wind blew the smoke away, laying her bare to the eyes that looked seaward. A moment afterwards it seemed to those in the ships as if the dim coast and the hidden harbour exploded into light. Guns and machine guns along the Mole and batteries ashore awoke to life, and it was in a gale of shelling that *Vindictive*

laid her nose against the thirty-foot high concrete side of the Mole, let go an anchor, and signed to *Daffodil* to shove her stern in. *Iris* went ahead and endeavoured to get alongside likewise. The fire, from the account of everybody concerned, was intense.

Commander A. F. B. Carpenter conned *Vindictive* from her open bridge till her stern was laid in, when he took up his position in the flame-thrower hut on the port side, which was so riddled and shattered that it is marvellous, reads the report, that any occupant of it should have survived.

The landing on the Mole was in itself a perilous business, involving a passage across the crashing, splintering gangways, a drop over the parapet into the field of fire of the German machine guns, and a further drop of some sixteen feet to the surface of the Mole itself. Many were killed and wounded as they crowded up, but nothing hindered the speedy and orderly landing from all of the eighteen gangways.

The topography of the great Mole, with its railway line and its many buildings, hangars, and store-sheds, was already well known, and the demolition parties moved to their appointed work in perfect order. One after another the buildings burst into flame or split and crumpled as the dynamite went off.

When the work of destruction was finally completed, the *Vindictive* was towed loose from the Mole by the *Daffodil* and made for home, her stokers working her up to a final display of seventeen knots.

And, as a result of the raid, the few old ships with their holds full of concrete are to-day lying across the canal in a V position, the work they set out to do having been accomplished and the canal having been effectively blocked.

Captain Carpenter, V.C., of the *Vindictive*, the great hero of this exploit, said in part: "The din was terrific and I think they got the old *Vindictive* in every visible spot. Suddenly the thing happened for which we had been semi-consciously waiting. There was a tremendous roar, and up went a huge tower of flame, débris and bodies into the black sky. My fellows cheered like mad for they knew what it meant. Sandford had got home beneath the viaduct with his ancient submarine and touched her off. I never saw such a column of flame. It seemed a mile high."

A curious feature of the submarine attack was this, that as

she shot towards the viaduct the searchlights picked her up and the guns began firing at her. The submarine was full of explosives and petrol, but to the amazement of the crew when the Germans saw her still coming on and dashing straight for the Mole they stopped firing and simply gaped.

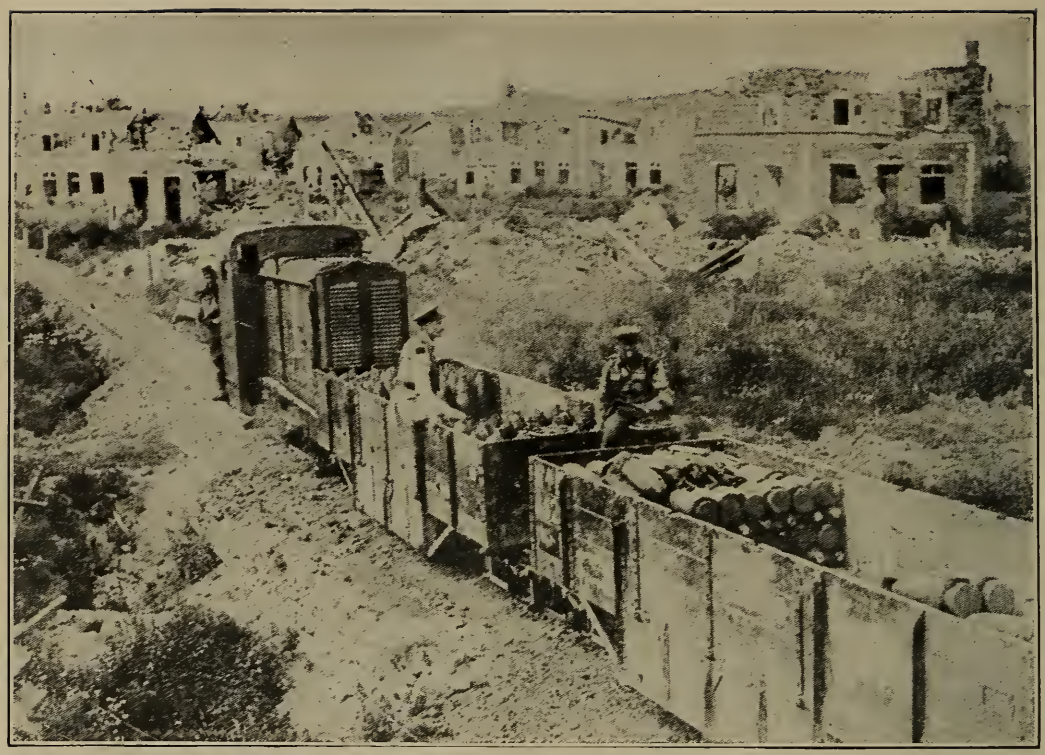
They paid for their curiosity. On the viaduct were large numbers of the enemy staring at the submarine approaching.

"Presently," Captain Carpenter says, "came the explosion and bang went the whole lot to glory. And," he added quaintly, "they must have been the most surprised lot of Huns since the war started."

The affair of Zeebrugge has been acclaimed as one of the most gallant exploits in the British navy. The romance of Captain Carpenter's rise to fame from an obscure desk in the admiralty to the command of the most heroic naval undertaking of the Great War is probably without parallel in the history of any country. The plan succeeded; the submarine base was rendered useless and the old ships loaded with concrete defied all efforts to remove them. Thus did the navy demonstrate that tradition and gallantry were more than a match for German industry and German skill.

STORMING THE MOLE AT ZEEBRUGGE

One of the most brilliant and spectacular feats in naval history was the British blocking of the submarine harbor at Zeebrugge. The picture shows one of the detachments of marines that braved the terrific German defense fire and swarmed up the mole that protects the harbor, planting explosives that made a great breach and let the tides in.



AMMUNITION FOR THE GUNS

Canadian narrow-gauge line taking ammunition up the line through a shattered village

CANADIAN BRIGADIER-GENERAL SCOUTS IN A WHIPPET TANK

To see what the enemy was doing and lay his plans, a Canadian general used this modern steel horse which was heavily shelled by the boches as soon as it appeared.

CHAPTER XXVII

The Canadian Auxiliary Services

The historian of former wars was little concerned with the problems of transport and supply of the warring armies. When he had presented a narrative of the purely military operations, derived from a critical examination of the records and facts at his disposal, his task was completed with a summary of the effects of the war on the belligerent countries. Except in the areas immediately affected the national life suffered little disturbance. Armies obtained their supplies from the surrounding countryside by the simple process of taking what they required or paying for it by requisition and voucher.

But in modern warfare when the whole national resources in men and material were mobilized, when the number of troops in the field had increased from tens of thousands to millions, and when the entire quantity of food, clothing, equipment and ammunition required had to be collected from all over the world and transported to the scene of operations, all the services connected with supplies and transportation became vastly expanded. The scope of the historian and the interest of the reader have thereby become greatly increased.

A WAR WITHOUT SPECTATORS

A century ago when Great Britain went to war, the army formed but a small percentage of the male population and the auxiliary forces were correspondingly insignificant. The average citizen in England, whose wars were always waged abroad, was able to sit back and watch the contest of the armies from afar. Sometimes, as at Waterloo, large numbers of spectators went over from England to see the battle.

In the recent war there were no spectators. In a war which jeopardized the future of the empire and the world every man played his part, however humble, in the terrible contest. The whole national resources, human and material, were mobilized;

and as the armies expanded enormously those auxiliary forces, which provided supplies and munitions, transported them to those armies, looked after their health and physical welfare and conducted the necessary huge financial operations, also expanded and became scarcely less important than the fighting sections.

Behind the fighting fringe of the Canadian Corps on the western front there were non-combatant units of the most diverse nature, many of them unknown in previous wars—labour battalions, salvage companies, railway troops, postal, record and pay departments, medical, dental and veterinary services.

Many of these units, particularly engineers, pioneers, stretcher bearers, medical and army service corps, frequently came under shell fire. For the men of most of the auxiliary services, whether swinging a pick, an axe, or a pen, there was no relief from the deadly monotony of routine. The inspiration of martial music, the high tension and nerve strain of the bombardment, the excitement of the trench raid or the intoxication of the assault were unknown to them. With the exception of the engineers, pioneers and medicals, they had little chance of winning honours or decorations.

A PERFECTLY CO-ORDINATED WORK

Yet on the perfectly co-ordinated work of these various units depended the efficiency of the fighting branches. The failure of the food supply for two or three days; the inability to deliver munitions; the failure to evacuate the sick and wounded; the impossibility of building bridges, mending wire or keeping the telephone system of the army in order, would utterly destroy the fighting ability of the fighting men.

Like a huge vine with its branches and tendrils spreading fanwise from the sturdy stump, the roads and railways of the Canadian army area radiated from the bases on the coast. And along those roads like ants along the vine branches, passed an unending stream of motor lorries, horse transport, guns, ammunition and supply columns, staff cars, ambulances, troops and despatch riders.

Over these roads and railways pass the vast quantities of supplies, ammunition, food, equipment, clothing and the thousand and one requirements of a modern army in the field.

Behind the firing line those auxiliary services, each a part of a vast machine, laboured night and day, building roads and railways, transporting ammunition and supplies through miry, shell-torn country, ministering to the sick and wounded, and otherwise busied with the enormous task of sustaining thousands of our Canadian boys in a barren country.

As soon as an operation order was issued by divisional headquarters the officer commanding the engineers made the necessary arrangements for carrying out the rôle assigned to his corps. The pioneers and signallers made similar preparations. The Assistant Director of Medical Services selected the positions for his field ambulances and dressing stations. Even the chaplains established soup kitchens and coffee stalls as close to the front line as possible where wounded and exhausted men could obtain a reviving drink and a cigarette.

THE CANADIAN ENGINEERS

Like all the services connected with the supply and transportation of troops and material the work of military engineers had expanded enormously. In this corps were included engineer companies, army troop companies, tunnelling companies, assisted by pioneer and labour battalions. Railway troops may also be grouped with the engineers.

These units were responsible for the construction and upkeep of the maze of roads, railroads and light railways, over which must pass the necessaries of life and instruments of destruction of the Canadian army.

In one case a short length of railway was broken by German artillery fire a score of times in twenty-four hours, yet the gaps, varying in length from fifteen to thirty feet had to be repaired under shell fire. The engineers ranked as a combatant unit as did the pioneers who carried the same equipment as infantrymen. The latter supplied working parties in and behind the lines for the building of trenches and dugouts, tunnelling, repairing roads and other work under the supervision of the engineers. The engineers and pioneers are units which render the maximum of service with the minimum of display; only those who have seen their work realize to the slightest degree the vital importance of these branches and the miracles they have been able to accomplish.

THE FORESTRY CORPS

Enormous quantities of timber were in constant demand to meet the evergrowing requirements of the armies in the field. The glorious old forests of England and the magnificent parks, because of the stern necessities of war, were attacked by companies of Canadian lumbermen in an endeavour to meet the situation. It was a sad sight to see, as I did, miles of forest in Devon levelled to the ground, but no worse than to see the grand old forest of Nieppe near Merville in France steadily shrinking under the attacks of British and Canadian woodmen, until after two years it was just a shell, from which the meat had been removed. Fortunately, for each tree felled in England a sapling has been planted, so that a practical system of reforestation came into being.

THE ARMY SERVICE CORPS

The transportation of the vast quantities of supplies, ammunition, food, equipment, clothing and the thousand and one other requirements of a modern army in the field devolved chiefly upon the Army Service Corps. The system included railhead supply detachments, divisional trains, corps and divisional supply columns, ammunition sub-parks, three field butcheries, four field bakeries, supply depots, as well as headquarters for horse and mechanical transport, two reserve parks and a re-enforcing pool for personnel. The majority of the Army Service Corps personnel were too old for the trenches physically unfit or men incapacitated by wounds. Their life was largely one of drudgery and monotony.

It was of course impracticable to transport everything all the way up from the base as required, so that stocks of supplies were assembled in dumps, the advanced central dump being the corps dump. Further forward were the divisional dumps and further forward still, as close as was consistent with safety, were the brigade dumps. Nothing could give one a better idea of the reasons why war is so expensive than to visit the huge dumps covering acre after acre at the various French ports. They were astounding both in the area involved and the enormous quantities of material and equipment gathered together. Nothing was allowed to go to waste in the army, and salvage companies were formed for the sole purpose of collecting and storing débris of all description which could possibly be converted into something else useful. Even bully beef tins are

collected. The odds and ends were gathered at the salvage dumps usually placed near ordnance dumps, under the control of the Assistant Director of Ordnance Services. Wherever possible light railways were used for the transport of salvage instead of motor transport.

THE ORDNANCE SERVICE

The Ordnance Service had under its supervision the supplies of the Canadian Corps heavy artillery, the Canadian Corps ammunition parks, the inspection of divisional ammunition dumps, brigade and regimental bomb stores and battery ammunition dugouts, railhead ordnance offices, laboratories, salvage dumps, laundry and baths—a formidable catalogue of duties.

A unique feature of the repair work undertaken by this service was that of the corps ordnance mobile workshop. This unit travelled from point to point carrying out inspections and repairs to trench mortars, howitzers, guns and water carts.

Experiments and inventions were reported upon, while every idea designed to promote efficiency was carefully tried out by officers of the Ordnance Service.

SIGNAL CORPS

The smooth direction of the whole complex system of huge organization behind the line—no less than the handling of large masses of troops in the field—depends absolutely upon the nervous system of the army, the Signal Corps. A collapse of the signal service would result in the complete paralysis of the army.

Instant and unbroken communication must be kept up from each section of trench through battalion, brigade, division and corps headquarters right up to the general headquarters. Without such communication it would be utterly futile to attempt to control the huge fighting machine which modern warfare has brought into being. The Signal Corps must therefore consist of highly trained specialists who are thoroughly proficient in the use of flags, double and single, the lamp for night signalling, the heliograph and discs, while others are expert telegraph operators.

It is only after months of the hardest and most exacting work that the best candidates graduate from the signalling schools. Those unable to reach the required standard are returned to their units.

The duties of signallers and linesmen in the front line demanded an almost incredible degree of courage. The network of telephone lines running back from observation posts and front line trenches to batteries and battalion headquarters had to be kept in repair under the worst bombardments. The forward observation officer and his signaller crouched perhaps in some foul shell hole, with all their faculties concentrated on registering the effect of their battery's fire and correcting it over the telephone, while enemy shrapnel and high explosive burst about them unnoticed. If the wire was cut and the forward observation officer thereby separated from his battery the latter instantly became blind. And when, as frequently happened, the wire was cut, the linesman crawled from the trench and all alone disappeared to find and mend the break, armed only with pliers and copper wire. Such work required courage of the very highest order.

VETERINARY CORPS

Beyond the railheads on disrupted roads and trails the horse played a part of inestimable value. To the Canadian Army Veterinary Corps was delegated the responsibility of keeping up the supply of horses and mules, caring for their physical welfare, and preventing the spread of disease. Besides the veterinary officers in charge of this work in divisions and brigades there was a mobile veterinary section to look after horse casualties, bring up remounts, supervise the quality of fodder supplied, and in general see that the horses of the division were thoroughly looked after.

CHAPLAIN SERVICE

The noble work of the army chaplain cannot be described or measured in words. The army chaplain of the type who is fearless—a man's man—did an incalculable amount of good at the front. No other kind was of much use. They had to meet on a common ground of understanding the hopes and fears of all sorts of men who were face to face with the elemental facts of life and death. Practically all denominations were represented in the chaplain service.

To the spiritual side of their work, to the noble duty of bringing consolation to the troubled in spirit, comfort to the wounded, faith and hope to the living and peace to the dying the Canadian chaplains

devoted themselves with zeal. But they undertook many other duties such as looking after recreation huts, cinema shows and libraries. Special services and Bible classes were also held in England and personal visits made to all men in hospital. University extension work was also carried on by the chaplains, hundreds of students enrolling for these classes.

In France the chaplain established soup kitchens and coffee stalls close to the front lines when an offensive was about to take place, so that wounded soldiers returning to the rear could get some refreshment and a cigarette. Several canteens were also operated by the chaplains in France. But above all the chaplain did not forget the fact that his chief duty was to bring spiritual comfort and solace to the soldiers who had been committed to his charge. Many thousands of men before battle have been comforted in soul and strengthened in heart by the last sacred services held by chaplains and prepared for whatever might be before them.

POSTAL CORPS

When the First Canadian division went overseas the officer commanding the Canadian Postal Corps went with it taking with him, with one exception, the whole personnel. The officer left behind had to create a postal service for all Canadian base details, and in 1915 the corps was reorganized as an independent unit. Wherever new training areas were opened new base or field post offices were formed. In 1916 arrangements were made to establish postal staffs at every regimental command, and discharge depot. Every man had to be followed as he moved from place to place and his mail readdressed so as to reach him. About thirty per cent of all mail had to be readdressed. Ninety per cent of all mail matter addressed to Canadian troops in England and France passed through the Canadian London base. In October, 1917, for example, 650,000 pieces of mail had to be redirected while over 8,000,000 pieces were handled altogether in England.

In France the task of the Assistant Director of Postal Service was much more difficult from the fact that mail had to be delivered to troops constantly on the move. Yet every man, no matter how often transferred or moved, received his mail matter promptly. The system in use was briefly the following:

At the Canadian railheads in France mail was received in

bags properly sorted. They were then conveyed by lorry to the mail dump, from which they were carried through the divisional field post offices to brigades and other units. Regimental mail orderlies called daily at their respective brigade post offices to receive the mail for their respective units. The letters and parcels were delivered daily to the men, while the mail for the sick and wounded followed them quickly to the hospital to which they had been sent.

PAY AND RECORD OFFICE

When Canada took the field with a single division the Pay and Record Office existed as a single small department. After the arrival of the contingent in England the staff found itself confronted with innumerable extraneous problems. In 1915 the office was divided into two, the Pay Office and the Record Office.

It required over $100,000,000 a year to finance the Canadian army overseas. The money required was deposited in the Bank of Montreal and the money drawn out and passed down through the chief paymaster and the advances branch, through all the departments to the various field formations.

The branch which concerned itself with the man's pay handled the accounts of over 300,000 men. The task of keeping them up to date involved about 4,000,000 entries a month. The pay office would send money anywhere for a soldier, even to a prisoner of war. A staff of 2,000 men was required to cope with work of the pay office in England.

The Canadian overseas base pay unit in France was established in February, 1915, and carried out the work connected with the payment of troops in the field. Field cashiers or divisional paymasters, usually located at divisional headquarters, supervised the work of unit paymasters.

The regimental paymasters, in addition to paying non-commissioned officers and men, cashed cheques for officers, issued leave cheques to men going on leave, despatched the effects of men killed to the base and, in general, performed the duties of assistant adjutant and record officer.

RECORDS OFFICE

In order that the part played by Canadians in the World War would not become a confused and indistinct memory the Canadian

Records Office had, in addition to keeping records of all documents relating to personnel, etc., the function of sifting over, collating and preparing historical material while it was in the course of making.

Every document turned in, from the war diary of the headquarters staff to the personal narrative of a private, was read and filed and condensed accounts of actions prepared from them. Escaped prisoners of war were also interviewed and their impressions filed away.

The aim was to supply a collection of historical material to meet the demands of the future historian, while official photographers and cinematographers of the War Records Office went forward and made records which will visualize war and its terrors to future generations.

From the above outlines, sketchy though they be, of the work of the Army Auxiliary Services, excepting the work of the medical and dental corps and some of the work of the ordnance service which appears in another chapter, it will be seen that the work of the actual fighting man in the front line was only made possible through the efforts of probably two other men behind the lines. These saw to it that the narrow fighting fringe of the army was kept in the very best possible condition; failure on the part of any one service spelled disaster to the whole. If the army service failed to supply food; the ordnance service to supply ammunition; the engineers to supply bridges, wire and water; the army medical corps to evacuate the wounded and prevent disease, or if any other branch failed one can readily see that the whole system would fall to the ground. In thinking of the war, credit must be given to the men who were not actual combatants, but who often worked under shell fire and cheerfully carried on the laborious monotonous humdrum work which made the army efficient. On the work of these auxiliary services the success or failure of an offensive frequently rested.

CHAPTER XXVIII

The Great Allied Drive

In mid July, 1918, Ludendorff had shot his bolt on the western front. He had already stretched his line from 195 to 250 miles and could expand it no further. Everywhere the Allies had brought the German rushes, which had developed the Marne, Picardy and Lys salients, to a standstill.

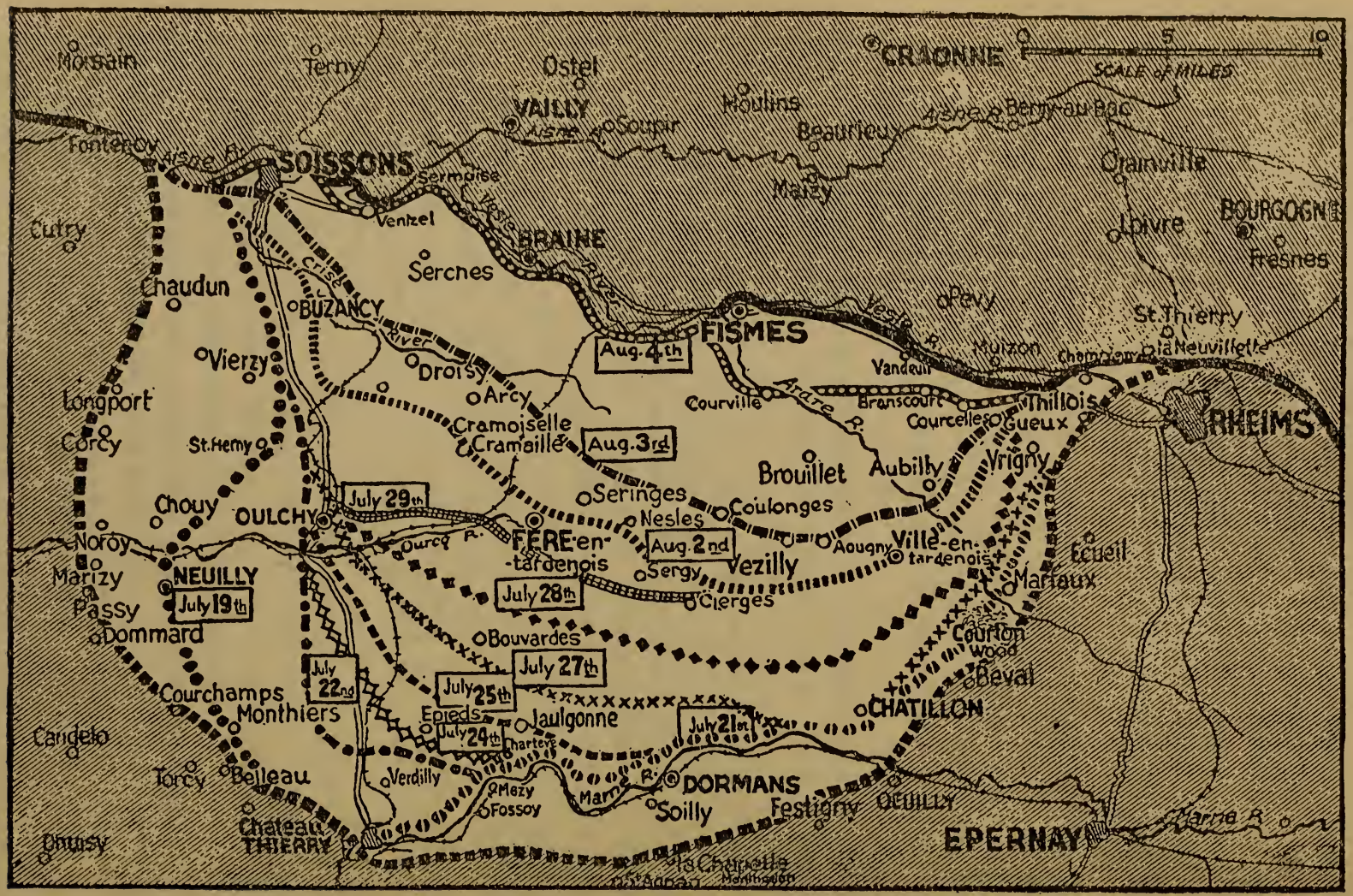
Immediately Foch assumed the initiative and crushed in the three salients in succession with the aid of his army of manœuvre. He then proceeded to develop two salients at each end of the Hindenburg line—at Laon on the south and at Cambrai on the north. The third phase began to develop in mid October with attacks at both ends of a line representing 200 miles of Belgian frontier. The enemy had lost 300,000 men and 5,000 guns since the Allies had assumed the offensive.

On September 12th and the week following the St. Mihiel salient was eliminated by American troops, while on September 18th the outer works of the Hindenburg line were penetrated by the British.

The latter enabled further advances against Cambrai, and the penetration of the Hindenburg line towards St. Quentin by the British and the movement again Laon by the French. These three movements having been exploited the two great flank attacks made possible the advance of the Franco-American armies in the Champagne and that of September 28th by the Belgians, French and British in western Belgium and ultimately resulted in the crushing in of the enemy centre and the retreat of the whole German army.

THE RECOVERY OF SOISSONS

On July 18th Marshal Foch, having his armies ready and his plans fully matured, delivered the first great counter-stroke on the front between Château-Thierry and Soissons which changed the whole fortune of the war. The French had, after the British



How the Soissons–Rheims Salient was Destroyed

Map showing the day-by-day retreat of the Germans from the Marne to the Vesle.

offensive at Cambrai, realized that the tank was the ideal method of breaking down enemy defences and began building a small type of tank in large numbers. These Reynaud tanks resembled the British whippet tanks which had already given excellent satisfaction. When the Germans began their great offensive in March the French had few tanks ready and did not use them; when the middle of July had come they had large numbers of these tanks.

The exposed western side of the deep salient towards Paris received the first weight of the allied blow, when, on July 18th, French and American troops attacked the twenty-seven-mile front between Soissons and Château-Thierry. No preliminary bombardment was used but fleets of tanks advancing broke through the enemy defences with the same success that Sir Julian Byng had achieved at Cambrai in the previous autumn.

In conjunction with the French the Twenty-second British corps on July 20th attacked on the eastern side of the salient towards Rheims, on a front of 8,000 yards. The attack in the face of determined resistance was carried on continuously for ten days and with the aid of French artillery and tanks penetrated to a depth of four miles, during which 1,200 prisoners were taken.

Meanwhile, on the western side of the salient the Fifteenth and Thirty-fourth British divisions attacked and for a week had also very heavy fighting on different parts of this front; these divisions, which greatly distinguished themselves, were withdrawn in the early days of August.

In the first day the French advanced from three to eight miles and the Americans five miles. Five thousand prisoners and thirty guns were captured the first day. By nightfall on July 19th the Allies had 17,000 prisoners and 360 guns. Two days later the Allies were crossing the Marne and the enemy began blowing up ammunition dumps.

There were thirty-five German divisions within the salient in danger of envelopment unless they could extricate themselves. On July 26th they were forced to begin a general retreat from the salient and, fighting obstinately, they were driven beyond the points from which their offensive began. By August 2d the Allies re-entered Soissons and the whole length of the enemy line from Hartennes to Soissons had been rolled up.

Simultaneously smaller successful operations were carried out

by the Allies in front of Amiens and in the Lys Valley against the armies of Prince Rupprecht. As a result the Germans kept falling back behind fresh river lines such as the Aisne, the Vesle, the Avre and the Ancre.

On August 4th, on the fourth anniversary of the declaration of war, it was announced that 300,000 Americans had been safely transported to France during the previous month. On that day Mr. Lloyd George, the British Premier, in a message to the British nation, said: "Hold fast. . . . Our prospects of victory have never been so bright as they are today."

PLAN OF FOCH'S OFFENSIVE

At a conference held on July 23d, when the success of the attack on July 18th was assured, methods for extending the allied advantage were discussed in detail. Marshal Foch asked that the British, French and American armies should each prepare plans for local offensives to be undertaken as soon as possible. These were to be of the type of limited objectives. The British were called upon to free the Amiens-Paris railway by an attack on the Albert-Montdidier front. The French and Americans were to free other strategic railways by operations farther to the south and east.

There were strong arguments for the disengagement of the Hazebrouk centre through the recapture of Kemmel Hill combined with an attack towards La Bassée. Such an operation would improve our position at Ypres and Calais, would reduce the Lys salient and remove the threat from the Bruay coal mines.

It was arranged subsequently that converging attacks would be made toward Mezières by the French and American armies while the British armies would attack along the St. Quentin-Cambrai line, striking at the vital lateral communications running through Maubeuge to Mezières. This line alone supplied the German front in the Champagne. The advance of the British armies towards Maubeuge would also threaten the communications of the German armies in Flanders.

It was of vital importance to the enemy that he maintain intact the front opposite St. Quentin and Cambrai and for this purpose he depended on the great fortified zone known as the Hindenburg line.

GENERAL PLAN OF BRITISH OPERATIONS

The Amiens attack was the prelude to a great series of battles in which, through three months of continuous fighting, the British armies advanced without a check from one victory to another.

The mighty conflict may be divided into two well-defined phases.

In the first phase of the struggle the enemy endeavoured to defend himself in the deep belt of prepared positions extending from Albert and Villers Bretonneux to the Hindenburg line between St. Quentin and the Scarpe. From these positions, the scene of the stubbornly fought battles of the two preceding years, the German armies were forced back step by step by a succession of methodical attacks which culminated in the breaking through of the Hindenburg line defences.

In the second phase of the struggle our troops were operating in practically open country against the enemy who endeavoured to make a stand on such natural or semi-prepared positions as were left to him, for periods long enough to enable him to organize his retreat and avoid overwhelming disaster.

Throughout the second period the violence of the British assaults and the rapidity of their advance towards the enemy's vital centres of communication about Maubeuge threatened to cut the main avenue of escape for the German forces opposite the French and German armies. The enemy armies in Flanders also were equally endangered by our progress behind their left flanks, while the allied forces under the King of the Belgians forced their retreat. To the north and south of the area in which the victorious British armies were driving forward through his weakening defences the enemy was compelled to execute hasty withdrawals from wide tracts of territory.

The second phase had already reached its legitimate conclusion when the signing of the armistice put an end to hostilities. Finally, defeated in the great battles of the 1st and 4th of November, and utterly without reserve, the enemy at that date was falling back without coherent plan in widespread disorder and confusion.

THE BATTLE OF AMIENS

The objects of the attack in front of Amiens were to disengage Amiens itself, free the Paris-Amiens railway, and cut the com-

munications of the German forces in the Lassigny and Montdidier regions by capturing the important railway junction of Chaulnes.

The attack was to be made by the Fourth Army under General Sir Henry Rawlinson, who was also given the Canadian Corps, two British divisions and the First French Army under General Debeney. In order to deceive the enemy, Canadian battalions were sent north to the Kemmel region and were speedily identified by the enemy. The appearance of Canadian troops in the line meant an offensive, and the enemy became certain that an attack was impending in the Lys region. Furthermore, the impression was given of a great concentration of tanks near St. Pol and training operations were so carried out behind the lines that the enemy aeroplane reconnaissance confirmed the impression that a great attack was to be launched in the north.

The Canadian Corps was then moved into the line by night, the tanks and cavalry secretly concentrated at the last moment, and on August 8th the attack was launched.

The front of General Rawlinson's Fourth Army extended from the Amiens-Roye road to Morlancourt, a distance of eleven miles. On the right was the Canadian Corps under Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie, with the First, Second and Third Canadian divisions in line and the Fourth Canadian division in close support. In the centre was the Australian corps under Lieutenant-General Sir John Monash, with the Second and Third Australian divisions in line and the Fourth and Fifth in support. On the left, north of the Somme River, was the Third British corps with the Fifty-eighth and Eighteenth British divisions in line and the Twelfth division in support. Thus eight out of the eleven infantry divisions were Colonial troops.

The British cavalry corps, two motor machine-gun brigades and a Canadian cyclist battalion were concentrated behind the British front to be attacked. The French First Army, on the right of the British, was to attack on a five-mile front and gradually extend this southward to Braches.

The British bombardment, which opened at 4.20 A. M., on August 8th, smothered the enemy batteries; the assault by tanks and infantry took the enemy completely by surprise and our first objectives were rapidly gained. Cavalry and light tanks then passed ahead to exploit the situation and by night we had com-

pleted an advance of between six and seven miles south of the Somme.

North of the Somme the British divisions were held, but the Colonials on the south, with the aid of cavalry and tanks, had captured 13,000 prisoners, nearly 400 guns and vast quantities of stores and ammunition. At nightfall the enemy was blowing up dumps in all directions while his transport and artillery streamed eastward towards the Somme offering excellent targets to our airmen.

The British commander-in-chief, in his despatch, said:

> The brilliant and predominating part taken by the Canadian and Australian corps in this battle is worthy of the highest commendation. The skill and determination of these troops proved irresistible and at all points met with rapid and complete success.

To the right the attack of the French army had also succeeded and 2,350 prisoners and many guns were captured on the first day.

The sweeping success achieved on the first day was exploited and the advance continued rapidly, much ground and many prisoners and villages being taken. By the evening of August 12th we had reached the old German Somme defences of 1916 along the old general Roye-Chaulnes defence. This area, overgrown with tall weeds, traversed by old barbed wire and pitted with shell holes, offered magnificent opportunities for machine-gun defence, and the enemy resistance began to stiffen. Accordingly the attack was broken off at this point in order to begin an attack in the direction of Bapaume.

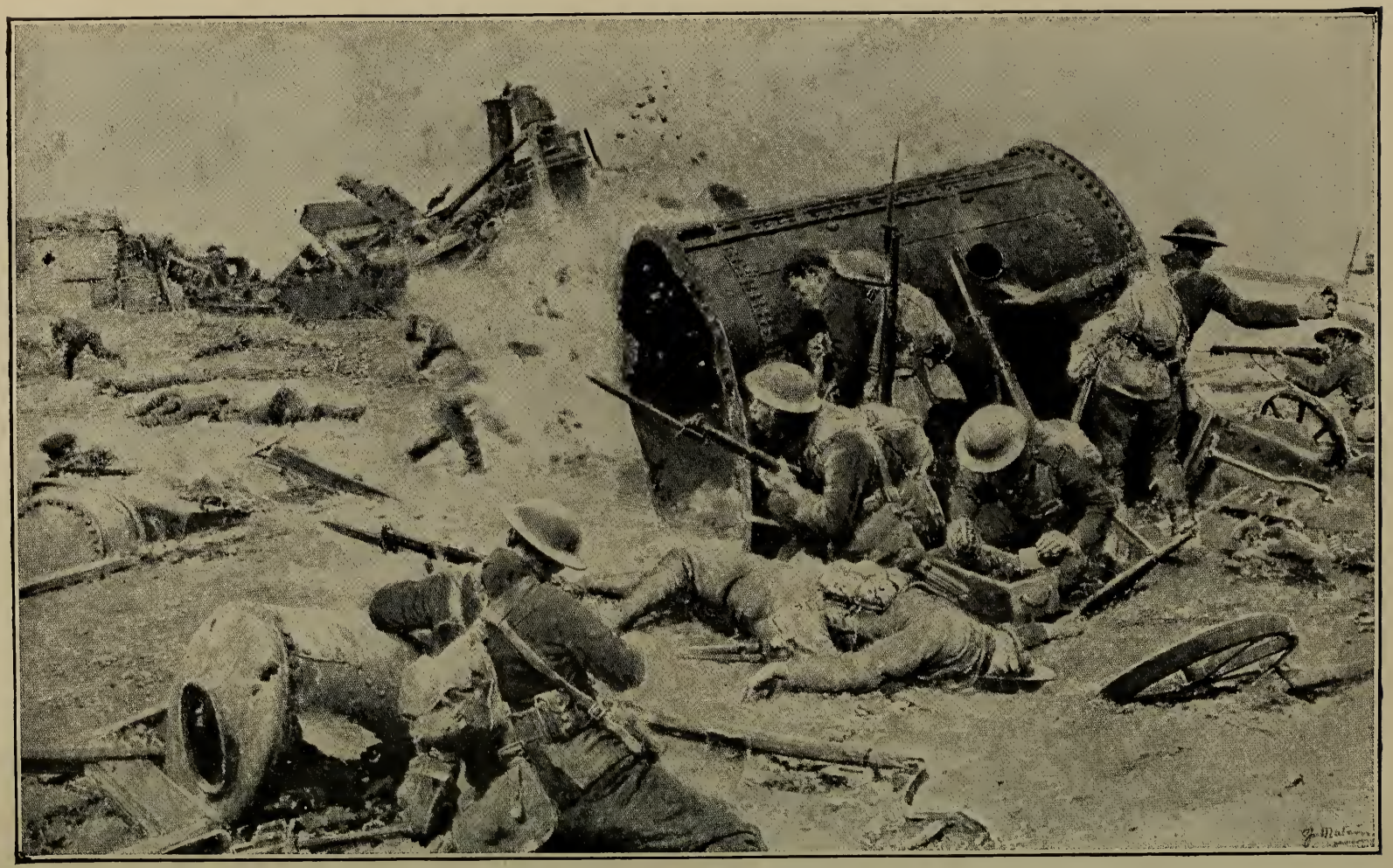
The results of the battle of Amiens were very great. In five days Amiens and its railways had been rendered safe; twenty German divisions had been badly defeated, 22,000 prisoners and over 400 guns had been captured and an advance of twelve miles made in a vital sector.

The effect on the morale of both armies was enormous. The enemy, previously buoyed up by hopes of an early peace and convinced that the Allies were exhausted, was suddenly beaten and thrown back with heavy losses of men, guns and important ground. The effect upon him was most depressing and the reaction of a deep and lasting character.

On the British army the effect was just the reverse. The

FAMOUS BRITISH GENERALS

General Smith-Dorrien, British Corps Commander in the famous retreat from Mons; Generals Plumer, Rawlinson and Byng, Commanders on the Western Front; General Birdwood, Commander of the Australian-New Zealand troops at Gallipoli.



CANADA'S DAY AT COURCELETTE

Furious fighting in a sugar refinery where the men from the Dominion drove the enemy from the ruins, the adjacent trenches and finally from the village itself.

British troops felt that their hour had come, and that, supported by artillery and numerous tanks, they could now press forward to reap the reward of their patient and indomitable defence of March and April. And later, as they moved confidently forward from one success to another, their previous suffering, danger and losses were alike forgotten in their desire to beat the enemy.

BATTLE OF BAPAUME

The enemy was next attacked by the British in the region between the Somme River and the Scarpe where his left flank was exposed because of the Fourth Army advance. The region selected between Albert and Arras permitted of the use of tanks, while the attack, if successful, would be a step forward towards the strategic objective St. Quentin-Cambrai. The opening attack was made by Byng's Third Army, on August 21st, and the divisions of the Fourth Army north of the Somme. Supported by tanks the enemy's foremost defences were carried rapidly and without difficulty, 2,000 prisoners being taken the first day. Next day the Fourth Army attacked and 2,400 more prisoners were taken. The main assault was delivered on August 23d on a thirty-three-mile front supported by 100 tanks and again proved successful. Five thousand prisoners and some guns were taken, and after severe fighting the German positions on the Thiepval Ridge and around Ovillers were taken. Pozières, Courcelette, Martinpuich, Miraumont, Grevillers, St. Leger and many other towns were captured on August 24th.

During the next five days of heavy fighting the advance was continued and on August 29th Bapaume was evacuated by the enemy. By the night of August 29th allied infantry had reached the left bank of the Somme on the whole front from Nesle to Peronne.

On August 31st the Second Australians, after hard fighting, captured Mt. St. Quentin and Peronne, bringing to a close the second stage of this offensive, during which thirty-five German divisions had been driven from one side of the old Somme battlefield to the other. Very heavy casualties had been inflicted upon the enemy while 34,000 prisoners and 250 guns had been taken from him.

The enemy morale was now clearly deteriorating, for garrisons left as rear guards surrendered as soon as they found themselves

threatened with isolation. The enemy had also been forced to throw in his reserves piecemeal and was evidently becoming disorganized.

BREAKING THE DROCOURT-QUÉANT LINE

In order to extend the flank of the salient opposite Arras the First British Army, on August 26th, drove eastward from Arras. The attack by the Second and Third Canadian divisions and the Fifty-first Highland division was completely successful and the operation was immediately followed up with great energy. By the end of the month the advance had brought us within assaulting distance of the powerful trench system running from the Hindenburg line at Quéant to the Lens defences about Drocourt. The breaking of this would turn the whole of the enemy's organized positions on a wide front southward.

The powerful Drocourt-Quéant line was broken, the maze of trenches at the juncture of that line and the Hindenburg system was stormed and the enemy was thrown into precipitate retreat on the whole front to the south of it. The Canadian First and Fourth divisions and the Fourth British Division attacked on a four-and-a-half-mile front south of Trinquis Brook, supported by forty tanks, mobile machine-gun units and armoured cars. By noon the whole of the elaborate system of wire, trenches and strong points constituting the Drocourt-Quéant line was in our hands.

At the same time the Seventeenth corps, employing the Fifty-second, Fifty-seventh and Sixty-third divisions, attacked the triangle of fortifications marking the junction of the Hindenburg and Drocourt-Quéant lines and also met with complete success.

Our troops had pushed forward over three miles along the Arras-Cambrai road and had taken 8,000 prisoners and many guns. The fighting was of the fiercest description but our troops were not to be denied and bore down all opposition.

As a result of the successes at Amiens, Bapaume and the Scarpe, which included the taking of Monchy-le-Preux and the Drocourt-Quéant line, the enemy fell back rapidly on the whole front of the Third Army and the right of the First Army. This withdrawal continued until, by September 8th, he was holding the general line, Vermand-Epéhy-Havrincourt, and thence along the Canal du Nord. This withdrawal extended to the south on the front of the French forces to the right of the British.

In the battle our troops followed the enemy closely, doing great execution among his retiring columns with forward guns and aeroplanes, and taking many prisoners. Ten British divisions, by overthrowing thirteen German divisions, gave the signal of the general retreat which resulted in the capture of 16,000 prisoners and about 200 guns.

THE ST. MIHIEL SALIENT

The St. Mihiel salient had existed since the line settled down after the first German failure to advance on Paris. It was thrust forward in front of the Metz gap between the fortresses of Verdun and Toul and reached the little town of St. Mihiel commanding the railway which linked the two cities. It formed a triangle with sides approximately twenty miles in length. There were few roads in the salient but the enemy had constructed a light railway from Thiaucourt to St. Mihiel

To the new American First Army of seven divisions in the front line and seven in reserve, containing 168,000 bayonets in all, together with divisions of French troops, was assigned the task of straightening out this line. The force under the American General Pershing was assisted by French and English air squadrons, French artillery and tanks.

On September 12th the American Army, after a four hours' bombardment, attacked from both sides of the triangle exposed, and by afternoon had advanced over the low hills, capturing Thiaucourt, Pannes, Nonsard and Montsec. The cavalry pushed on towards Vigneulles in the centre of the salient. From the western side the Americans quickly reached Combres and the two converging forces were within ten miles of each other. French troops had meanwhile thrust forward at the point of the wedge and the three enemy divisions in the triangle were in danger of envelopment; 8,000 prisoners were taken.

On the second day the converging American armies met, trapping large numbers of Germans in the pocket formed. In all 443 guns and 16,000 prisoners were captured. The defeated Germans now began to retreat between the River Meuse and the Moselle, a retreat which extended over a front of thirty-three miles. Ablancourt, Fresnes, Boncourt, Haumont and Remembercourt were all taken and only when the heavy guns of Metz twelve miles

away came into action did the enemy resistance begin to stiffen. A break through by the Allies at this end of the line might have endangered the entire enemy armies in France, or have cut off those operating in the east from those in Flanders. The enemy accordingly greatly strengthened his forces at that point at the expense of the rest of the front, and the allied advance was checked.

BATTLE OF HAVRINCOURT AND EPÉHY (SEPTEMBER 12–18)

North of Havrincourt the enemy had taken shelter behind the strongly defended Canal du Nord; south of Havrincourt the enemy's main line of resistance was the well-known Hindenburg line which ran to the Scheldt Canal at Bantouzelle whence it followed the line of the canal to St. Quentin.

Strong positions in front of Havrincourt and Epéhy had to be taken before a final attack on the Hindenburg line could be made. On September 12th the Third British Army attacked the Havrincourt sector and captured it. The Third and Fourth armies again attacked on a seventeen-mile front with the co-operation of the First French Army south of Holnon. Our troops penetrated the deeply fortified belt for a distance of three miles, capturing practically the whole of our objectives. On the extreme right and in the left centre about Epéhy the very determined enemy resistance was overcome, leaving the Hindenburg defences open to assault. Fifteen British divisions had defeated twenty German divisions, capturing nearly 12,000 prisoners and 100 guns, and completing the fourth stage of our offensive.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ALLIED PLAN

It was now decided between the allied commanders, after the success of the First American Army at St. Mihiel, to launch four convergent and simultaneous offensives as follows:

1. By the Americans west of the Meuse in the direction of Mezières.

2. By the French west of Argonne in close co-operation with the American attacks and with the same general objective.

3. By the British on the St. Quentin-Cambrai front in the general direction of Maubeuge.

4. By Belgian and allied forces in Flanders in the direction of Ghent.

By those means the important German forces in front of the French and Americans would be pressed back upon the difficult country of the Ardennes, while the British were to break through upon the principal German line of communication. At the same time it was intended to turn the flank of the Germans, weakened by attacks elsewhere.

THE FAMOUS HINDENBURG LINE

The Scheldt Canal, between St. Quentin and Bantouzelle, was an integral part of a deep defensive system but was chiefly valuable in affording cover to resting troops and the main defensive trench lines during a bombardment. The canal in that sector ran through cuttings sometimes sixty-one feet deep and in one place passed through a tunnel 6,000 yards long. Along the top edge of the cuts the enemy had numberless concrete or armoured machine-gun emplacements. The sides of the cuts were burrowed with numerous tunnels and dug-outs. The tunnel itself was used to provide living quarters for large numbers of troops and was connected with the trenches on the surface of the ground by shafts. South of Bellicourt the canal became shallow and south of Bellenglise it became dry. On the western side of the canal were two thoroughly organized and extremely heavily wired lines of continuous trench at distances of 2,000 and 1,000 yards respectively. This constituted the Hindenburg line proper.

There were numerous trench lines, switch trenches, and communication trenches heavily wired and so situated as to meet local weaknesses or take advantage of favorable fields of fire.

Behind the easternmost trench lines at a distance of about 4,000 yards was a second double row of trenches very thoroughly wired and holding numerous concrete shelters and machine-gun emplacements. The whole series of defences, with the numerous defended villages contained in it, formed a belt of country varying from 7,000 to 10,000 yards (four to six miles) in depth. It was organized by the employment of every available means into a most powerful system well meriting the great reputation attached to it.

ST. QUENTIN

On September 18th the Fourth British Army under Sir Henry Rawlinson and the First French Army under Debeney attacked and

carried the outer defences of the Hindenburg line at two points northwest of St. Quentin. Massed attacks with heavy artillery concentration against the newly won British position failed all along the twenty-two mile front. This enabled Rawlinson's left and the Third British Army under Sir Julian Byng to carry the offensive farther. On September 27th Byng's Third Army including the Canadian Corps and Horne's First Army, with the Thirtieth American division, advanced along a fourteen-mile front towards Cambrai. This attack, which crossed the Canal du Nord and the Hindenburg line at several points, resulted in the capture of 6,000 prisoners and several villages. Next day the advance was continued and several more towns and 4,000 additional prisoners were captured. Over 200 guns were taken in the two days.

On September 29th Rawlinson's Fourth British Army after bombarding the enemy lines for two days crossed the Scheldt Canal while the American division captured Bellecourt.

On the Fourth Army front, the Forty-sixth British division (Major-General G. F. Boyd) greatly distinguished itself in the capture of Bellenglise. The village is situated in the angle of the Scheldt Canal, which, after running in a southerly direction from Bellicourt, here bends sharply to the east toward the Le Tronquoy Tunnel. Equipped with lifebelts, and carrying mats and rafts, the Forty-sixth division stormed the western arm of the canal at Bellenglise and to the north of it, some crossing the canal on footbridges which the enemy was given no time to destroy, others dropping down the sheer sides of the canal wall, and, having swum or waded to the far side, climbing up the further wall to the German trench lines on the eastern bank. Having captured these trenches, the attacking troops swung to the right and took from flank and rear the German defenses along the eastern arm of the canal and on the high ground south of the canal, capturing many prisoners and German batteries in action before the enemy had had time to realize the new direction of the attack. So thorough and complete was the organization for this attack, and so gallantly, rapidly, and well was it executed by the troops, that this one division took on this day over 4,000 prisoners and seventy guns.

The advance towards Cambrai forced the enemy to abandon the Lens coal area, after he had done the maximum amount of damage and flooded the mines. The First British Army now

advancing captured towns six miles from Douai while Byng's Third British Army reached a point five miles northwest of Cambrai.

St. Quentin, in the centre of the Hindenburg line, is the key to the railway line between France, Belgium and Northern Germany. At one time it was part of the dowry of Mary Queen of Scots, when she married Francis II. It was protected by the elaborate Hindenburg line, the Somme and St. Quentin canals. One of the reasons for its great importance was the fact that it was a distributing centre for a considerable portion of the German front and was connected with the Belgian front by a three-tracked railway.

When Generals Rawlinson and Debeney penetrated the western section of the Hindenburg line they quickly took advantage of their advance and pushed forward steadily, capturing many towns, until, by October 1st, they were in the outskirts of St. Quentin itself. Next day they entered the city, to discover that the civilian population of 50,000 souls had been deported.

Advancing northeast of St. Quentin the British took Le Catelet and crossed the Scheldt Canal.

During those nine days of great and critical assaults the First, Third and Fourth British armies stormed the line of the Canal du Nord and broke through the Hindenburg line and brought to a close the first phase of the British offensive. The enemy's last and most powerful defensive system had been shattered and the whole of the famous Hindenburg line had passed into our possession.

The effect upon the subsequent course of the campaign was decisive. Nothing now lay between our armies and Maubeuge but the natural obstacles of a wooded and well-watered countryside.

Thirty British and two American divisions with one British cavalry division had overwhelmingly defeated thirty-nine German divisions in the strongest entrenched position ever constructed and taken 36,000 prisoners and 380 guns. The deterioration of German morale was thereafter most marked.

LAON

Foch made his attack towards Laon from the St. Gobain Forest on the west and the Berry-au-Bac line of the Aisne on the southeast, instead of by a frontal attack such as Pétain had attempted the year before. On September 28th General Mangin

commenced his advance against the German line, and on October 2d captured several towns between the Aisne and the Vesle River. General Bertholet on his right advanced towards Berry-au-Bac ten miles north of Rheims. This was captured on October 7th. General Mangin had occupied nearly the whole of the Chemin des Dames and the Germans were being driven from the Craonne plateaux. The strongholds of La Fère and Laon were acquired with little resistance. The vertex of the German salient in France was eliminated and thereafter the advance to the Aisne was rapid.

CHAMPAGNE OFFENSIVE

The attack in the sector from Rheims to the Côtes de Meuse began on September 26th, two days previous to the Belgian-British offensive in Flanders. The French under General Gouraud advanced from the Suippe River east to the Argonne Forest; the American First Army attacked from the Argonne Forest to the Meuse River north of Verdun. In the first day the French advanced from three to four miles and the Americans from five to six. By the end of the second day 10,000 prisoners had been taken. The Americans continued their advance down the Meuse taking numerous towns, while the French, advancing rapidly on September 29th and 30th, gained the position controlling the railway junction of Charllerange.

On October 4th the Americans went through the last organized enemy defence south of the Belgian frontier. On the following day the French drove back the enemy on a twelve-mile front and the next day pursued him on a wide front north and northeast of Rheims for a distance of eight miles. On October 11th the French took over the entire line of the Suippe and the Americans began a new offensive east of the Meuse. In sixteen days the Fourth French Army had taken 21,567 prisoners and 600 guns.

The First American Army on October 15th took Hill 299 and on the following day seized the important strategic point of Grand Pré and consolidated their positions beyond the Kriemhelde line. The French, on October 18th, crossed the Aisne River near Vouziers.

FLANDERS OFFENSIVE

The British fleet on September 28th was busily engaged in bombarding the enemy coast defences from Nieuport to Zeebrugge,

and on the following day King Albert's Belgian Army and the British Second Army, under Sir Herbert Plumer, broke through the German lines on a ten-mile front between Passchendaele Ridge and Dixmude, penetrating the enemy positions for five miles and capturing 4,000 prisoners. On the following day the Belgians had arrived within two miles of Roulers, capturing 1,500 more prisoners. Next day Roulers was taken by them. The British, on September 30th, overran Passchendaele Ridge and came within two miles of the railway junction of Menin, while to the southeast they reached the Lys River on a four-mile front between Warneton and Wervicq.

A new French army under General Degoutte arrived in this sector and a great enveloping movement was begun. This quickly wiped out the remains of the salient developed by the Germans on April 9th. The Belgian advance continued beyond Roulers and the British advance between Roulers and Courtrai.

On October 14th a furious attack from Comines to the sea was made towards Ghent and Courtrai by the British, French and Belgians, and signs of disintegration of the enemy armies rapidly made their appearance. On October 16th under the allied pressure the great German retreat from western Belgium began, closely followed by our armies. The Fifth British Army, now reorganized under General Birdwood, began the envelopment of Lille and occupied it on October 17th after the enemy had evacuated that city so beloved by the people of northern France.

On the day after the Germans began their retreat from Belgium the Ostend and Zeebrugge submarine bases were evacuated, as were many Belgian cities.

CHAPTER XXIX

From Amiens to Mons With the Canadians

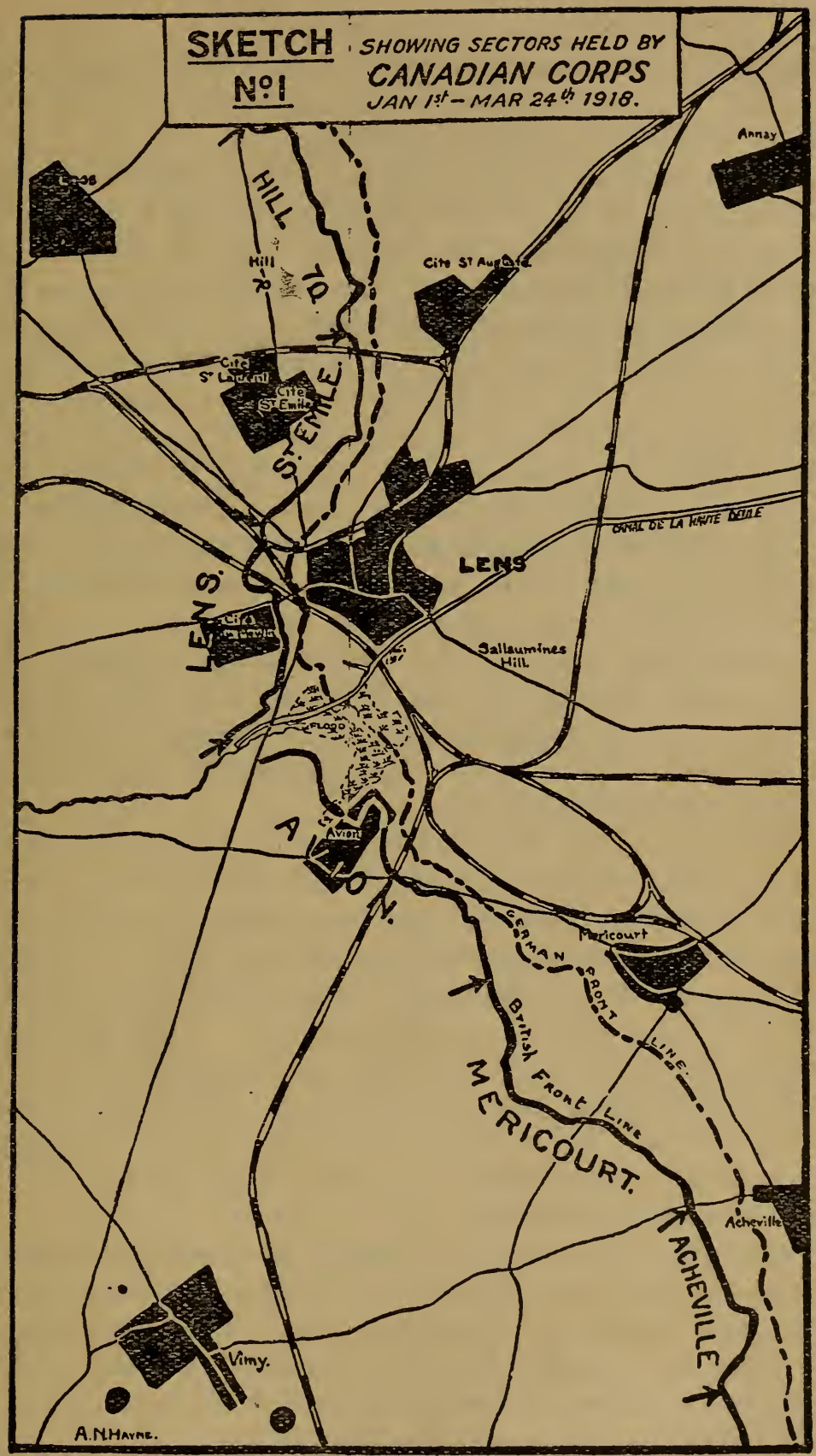
The front held by the Canadian Corps on January 1, 1918, reached from Acheville to Loos, a distance of 13,000 yards. Certain changes designed to increase the fighting efficiency of the division were carried out by the corps commander by increasing the strength of each battalion by 100 and reorganizing the engineers and machine-gun sections.

The ground held by the Canadian Corps was that captured by the Canadians during the battle of Vimy Ridge and subsequent operations. It had been greatly strengthened by the construction of successive defensive lines, and a complete system of roads, trench railways and water supply installed. Close behind it lay the coal collieries of northern France and a break through at this point would have had far-reaching tactical and strategical results. It was confidently expected that this vital sector would be attacked during the looked-for German offensive and every effort was made to secure it against surprise attacks. Two hundred and fifty miles of trenches, 300 miles of barbed wire entanglements and 200 tunnelled machine-gun emplacements were completed by the Canadians in carrying out their task.

During January little activity took place on the enemy front, but during February and March he carried on much work preparing for an offensive, raiding the Canadian lines and carrying on artillery shoots with explosive and gas shells. Retaliatory measures soon caused a cessation in this type of warfare.

When the initial German offensive occurred, on March 21st, the Canadian Corps, under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie, K.C.B., G.C.M.G., contained four divisions. These were commanded by Major-General Sir A. C. Macdonell, First Canadian division; Major-General Sir H. E. Burstall, Second Canadian division; Major-General L. J. Lipsett, Third Canadian division; Major-General Sir D. Watson, Fourth Canadian division.

The account here given of the last thrilling one hundred days



WHERE THE CANADIANS HELD THE LINE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE GREAT ENEMY ATTACK OF MARCH 21, 1918

of the war with the Canadian Corps is largely taken from the official narratives of the Canadian Corps commander and the official correspondent of the overseas ministry.

On the early morning of March 21, 1918, the enemy launched his great attack on the fronts of the Fifth and Third British armies. It was soon evident that the opening stages of the battle were going in favor of the Germans. The Canadian Corps was at that time holding the line in front of Vimy Ridge from Mericourt to Hill 70, with the Second division in rest at Auchel. The great German offensive did not directly engage the Canadians, but at 3.50 P. M., March 21st, the Canadian Corps headquarters received the first order from army headquarters, setting the corps in motion on a period of activity which did not cease till the armistice.

At 3.50 P. M. on the 21st the First Army ordered the Canadian Corps to take over the front of the Sixty-second division in the Acheville section.

During the night of 22d to 23d the First Canadian Motor Machine Gun brigade, then in the line on the Vimy sector, was withdrawn and by midnight following all batteries were in action on a thirty-five-mile front east of Amiens, having traveled over one hundred miles during the day.

The First C. M. M. G. brigade (Lieutenant-Colonel W. K. Walker), under orders of the Fifth and later Fourth Army, was ordered to fight a rearguard action to delay the advance of the enemy, and to fill dangerous gaps on the army front. For nineteen days that unit was continuously in action north and south of the Somme, fighting against overwhelming odds. It fought over 200 square miles of territory. It is difficult to appraise to its correct extent the influence, material and moral, that the forty machine guns of that unit had in the events which were then taking place. The losses suffered amounted to about seventy-five per cent of the trench strength of the unit.

Then followed a period of activity for the Canadian Corps, as various divisions were despatched hither and thither depending upon where the German advance seemed most threatening. On one night, for example, the First Canadian division was moved by bus to the Couturelle area but at dawn the enemy struck heavily along the Scarpe River and the First division, at 10 A. M. next morning, was ordered to retain the busses and return to the Arras-

Dainville area. As some of the busses had returned and the roads were crowded with troops on the move the move was difficult but the division extricated itself and returned.

This constant shifting of the Canadian divisions resulted in the corps being split up and the divisions being placed under three different corps in two armies. This was not at all satisfactory to the Canadian Corps commander and he made strong representations to the army commander offering suggestions which would reconcile the Canadian policy with the tactical and administrative requirements. As a result two divisions were returned to the corps on March 29th.

On April 8th the Canadian Corps was holding a front of nine miles and the Second division a front of two and a half miles. This only allowed of the front being very lightly held, and Sir Arthur Currie organized two special brigades made up of tunnelling companies, pioneers, re-enforcements, and other odds and ends as a reserve, and in addition to these measures each division organized its own "last resort reserves," consisting of the personnel left at transport lines, and detailed to defend definite localities.

"Every contingency," says Sir Arthur, "was prepared for down to the minutest detail, and nothing could be more inspiring than to witness the extraordinary spirit displayed by everybody in their untiring labor and ceaseless vigilance."

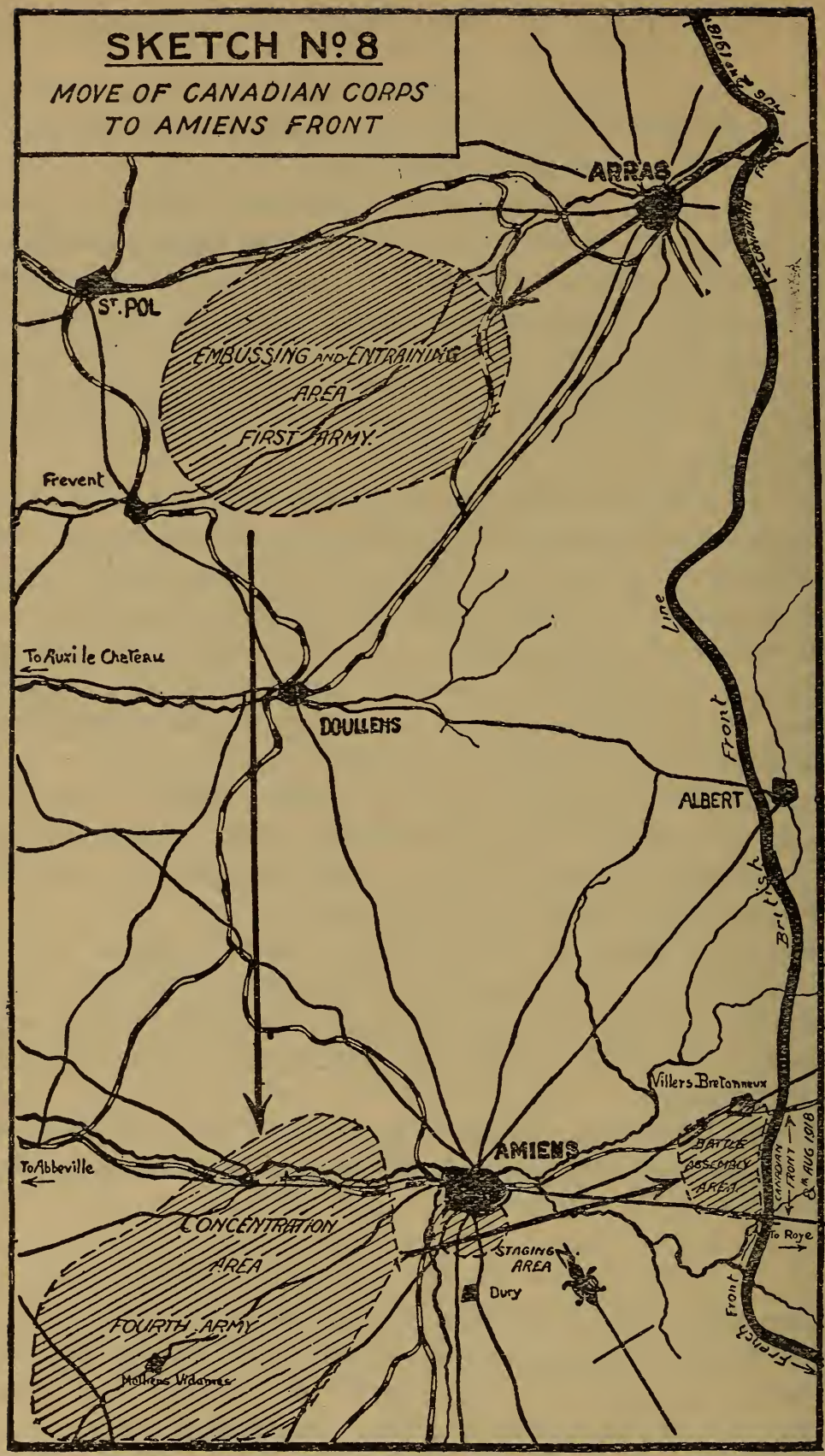
Extended almost to the breaking point, in danger of being annihilated by overwhelming attacks, the corps confidently awaited the assault. All ranks of the corps were unanimous in their ardent resolve to hold to the very last every inch of the ground entrusted to their keeping.

It was for them a matter of great pride that their front was substantially the only part of the British lines which had not budged.

PREPARATION FOR THE BATTLE OF AMIENS

The First, Third and Fourth Canadian divisions, by May 7th were in reserve, training in open warfare and exercises calculated to improve the health and spirits of the troops. The Second Canadian division remained in the line just south of Arras.

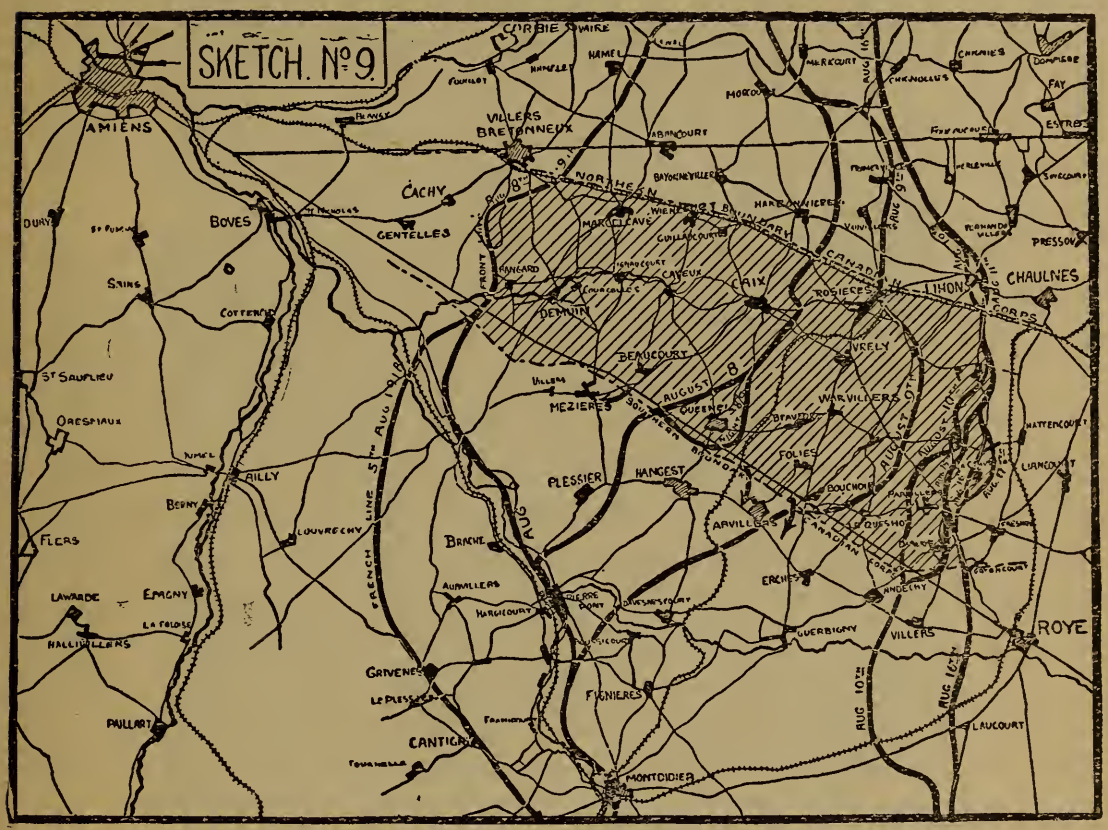
The Amiens operation was first discussed at a conference on July 21st at which the Canadian Corps commander was present.



PREPARING FOR THE BATTLE OF AMIENS

Map showing transfer of Canadian corps from Arras to Amiens. General Currie says: "These moves were carried out by strategical trains, busses and route marches with the utmost secrecy."

It was most essential that the enemy should be taken by surprise in this most vital sector and elaborate plans were made to deceive him. The Canadians were known as "shock troops" and their appearance generally indicated an offensive. Accordingly, while plans were carried out for an attack on Orange Hill, in front of Arras, two Canadian battalions were sent north to the Kemmel area where they were promptly identified. Wireless outfits were



THE SWEEP OF THE CANADIAN CORPS

Map showing allied drive August 5–17, 1918. The shaded portion indicates the 14-mile advance of the Canadians. General Currie says: "The surprise had been complete and overwhelming. . . . A captured German officer stated that the Canadians were believed to be on the Kemmel front."

also sent into the same sectors and messages transmitted for the purpose of being picked up by the enemy's intelligence branch. Two clearing stations were also sent into the same area. Meanwhile, ostensibly for a Canadian attack on Orange Hill, tanks were ostentatiously assembled near St. Pol.

An army order issued on July 29th stated that the Canadian Corps was to move northward to the Second British Army area. On the same day the Canadian divisional commanders were told

of the impending operations in front of Amiens but were instructed not to discuss the matter with their subordinate commanders.

In order to further deceive our own troops as to their destination a letter issued by the First Army was repeated to all Canadian units stating that the Canadian Corps was being transferred to the Fourth Army.

When the actual order came to move few knew either of the destination or the future plans of the corps. All formations traveled by night. In spite of enormous difficulties the plans of the staff were carried out to the letter and on the night of August 7th infantry, cavalry, artillery, tanks, engineers, motor machine guns and other arms of the service were mobilized in Gentilles Wood and its neighbourhood.

It is interesting to know that in spite of the tremendous difficulties of the move every man received his rations, his parcels and letters from home, and even the Y. M. C. A. and Padres had succeeded in bringing along huge boilers of tea and quantities of chocolate, biscuits, and cigarettes which were given away to all gratis. At the rear everything was in readiness to forward supplies and munitions as soon as the attack began, while the ambulances were ready to receive the inevitable toll of wounded. Needless to say it was quite a feat to concentrate such huge numbers of men, horses, guns, tanks and material without causing suspicion in the enemy. To drown the noise of the tank engines clanking forward during the night large bombing planes flew low over the trenches and drowned the sound so effectively that nothing seemed to be suspected by the enemy.

On the right of the 20,000 yards of front to be attacked was the First French Army, in the centre the Canadian Corps, on the left the Australian corps and left of that again the Third British corps.

The Canadian front was about 8,500 yards long and the Canadian division, numbering from the left were the Second, First and Third with the Fourth in reserve. Each division had an allotment of tanks. The general scheme of attack was to rapidly push through the enemy's forward area for some two miles under cover of a dense artillery barrage, overcome the machine-gun defences with tanks and let the cavalry through together with the supporting force of motor machine guns, cyclist battalion and Newton mortars on trucks.

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WAITING THE CALL TO ACTION

Canadian Motor Machine Gun Section on the Cambrai road ready to go into battle. Powerful lorries loaded with guns, men and ammunition equipped and anxious to make it hot for the Hun.

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INTO THE FIGHT FOR CAMBRAI

Canadian Scottish going up to the front with full equipment in readiness for the great Cambrai battle.

The attack began at 4.20 A. M., on August 8th, and was immediately successful at all points. No registering shots had been fired by the artillery and in consequence the enemy was taken completely by surprise when our barrage fell on him quickly followed by our men. There was a mist which hid the infantrymen's signals for artillery support and for once the weather favored us. As the infantry went forward our field guns limbered up and followed while the "heavies" came on shortly after. Taking their locations as previously arranged they recommenced their methodical firing by the map.

The cavalry came into action about noon. Horses and guns extended along a five-mile front to a depth of 1,000 yards. As they rode into action our men cheered them enthusiastically for they made a fine appearance dashing here and there routing out machine gunners and riflemen and co-operating with the tanks to clear the ground for the men to advance.

By night the Canadians had advanced 14,000 yards, captured 6,000 prisoners, 100 guns and large amounts of material.

On the day following the advance continued for another four miles with a maximum penetration of six and a half miles at some points. On the 10th the attack was continued along the old Somme area of 1916 where old trenches and wire overgrown with weeds afforded the enemy excellent shelter and defences for machine guns.

Powerful enemy reserves had now arrived to stem the attack of the Canadian and Australian troops. Six fresh enemy divisions and a number of batteries had arrived and were fighting in heavily entrenched positions. Accordingly the Canadian Corps commander considered it inadvisable to attempt further progress by infantry fighting and recommended that rather than waste the strength of the corps upon operations which would not bring adequate results the Canadians should be withdrawn, rested for a few days and used to make another surprise attack towards Bapaume.

The Canadian Corps was relieved on the 19th and the front handed over to the Australian corps.

In the battle of Amiens, from August 8th to August 22d, the Canadians had fought and overcome ten German divisions, while five others had been partially engaged. They also captured 9,131 prisoners, 190 guns and more than 1,000 machine guns and

trench mortars. In all sixty-seven square miles containing twenty-seven towns and villages had been captured by them, and the depth of front penetrated was fourteen miles.

The rear of an advancing army is almost more interesting than the front because there is more to see and more time and opportunity to see it. Back of the infantry moved the guns ever edging forward to new locations, while field ambulances, hospitals, mobile repair shops, railheads, supply dumps, horse lines, headquarters and transport settlements followed in the wake of the advance.

The casualties suffered by the Canadian Corps in the fourteen days of heavy fighting amounted to 579 officers and 10,783 men.

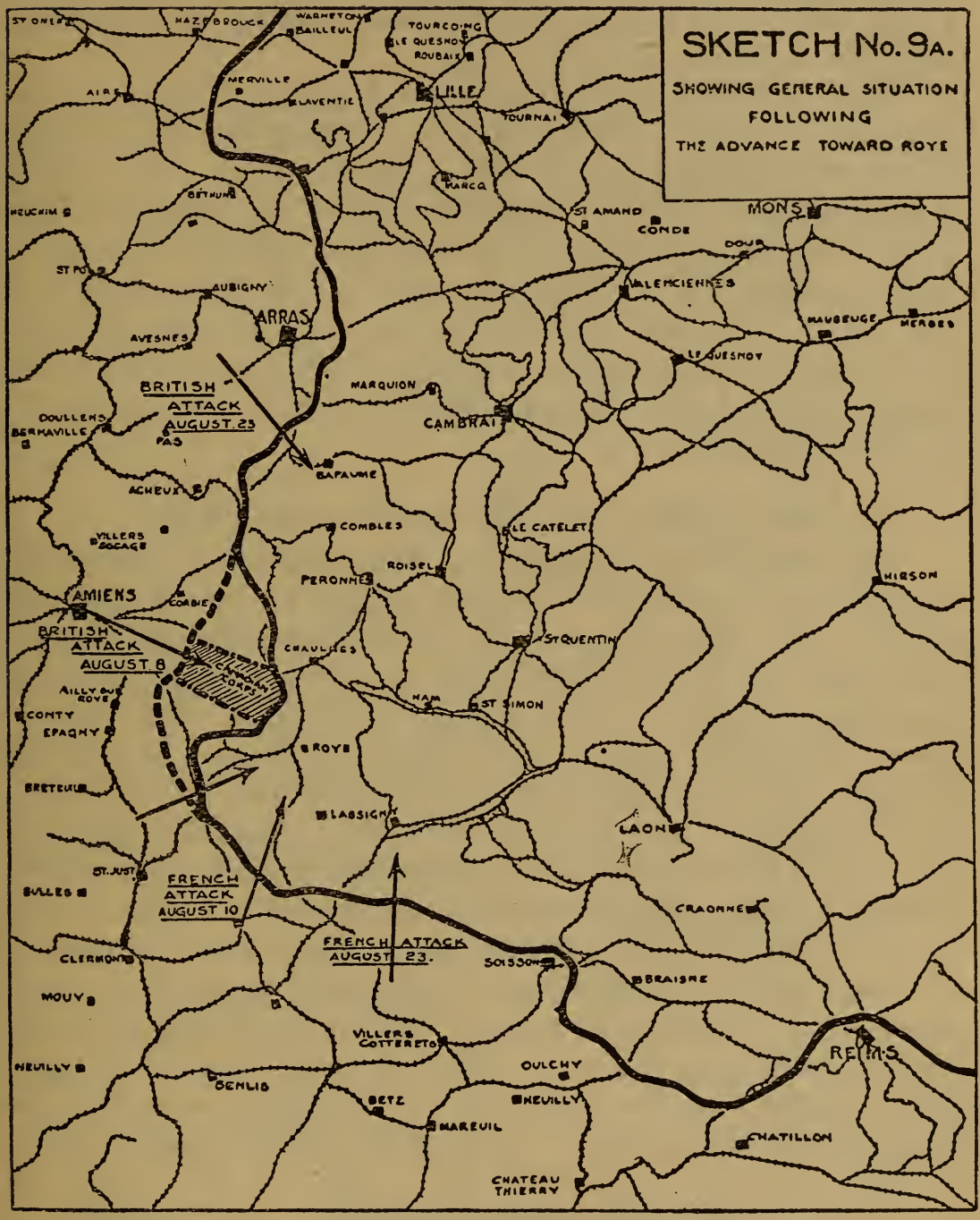
BATTLE OF CAMBRAI

The Canadian Corps then moved up to Arras for the battle of Cambrai and the Hindenburg line. The attack in front of Arras was planned for August 26th which gave the Canadians three days to concentrate. The Canadian Corps, now flushed with their great victory, were keen for the coming attack.

There were four main systems of defences facing the Canadians comprising the old German front line east of Monchy, the Fresnes-Rouvroy line, the Drocourt-Quéant line and the Canal du Nord line, making, without doubt, one of the strongest defensive systems on the western front. As a preliminary to attacking the old German system it was essential to capture the old British lines lost in the recent fighting, organized in depth some 5,000 yards and dominated by the height of Monchy.

CANADIANS CARRY MONCHY

On August 26th, at 3 A. M., the attack was launched under the usual artillery and machine-gun barrages. It made good progress, the village of Monchy being entered early in the day after a brilliant encircling attack carried out by the Eighth brigade (General D. C. Draper). The enemy fought strenuously, and several counter-attacks were repulsed. Three German divisions were identified and 2,000 prisoners captured. On the 28th the attack was resumed by the Second and Third divisions, the fighting was most severe, and at nightfall the general line of the Second division was little in advance of the line held the night before,



The New Objectives: Bapaume, Roye and Lassigny

Map of the battle front in France, August 20, 1918. Of the fighting at this time General Currie says: "The battle was now in full swing on the centre and southern parts of the Somme salient. North of the Somme the British Third Army made some local attacks on the 21st, and on the 24th attacked heavily on a broad front in the direction of Bapaume. On the whole Somme salient the Germans were retiring slowly, fighting a stubborn rearguard action, actively pressed everywhere by the allied armies."

although a few small parties of stubborn men were still as far forward as the wire of the Fresnes-Rouvroy line. Enemy re-enforcements were seen dribbling forward all day.

On the 30th, following the reported capture of Hindcourt by a British division, the First division attacked the Vis-en-Artois switch, Upton Wood and the Fresnes-Rouvroy line. The attack, a daring manœuvre organized and carried out by the First brigade under cover of very ingenious barrages, was eminently successful. It was necessary to postpone the attack on the Drocourt-Quéant line until September 2d, and the day of September 1st was employed in minor operations to improve the jumping-off line. The important strong point, known as the Crow's Nest, was captured by the Third brigade.

THE FAMOUS DROCOURT-QUÉANT SWITCH LINE

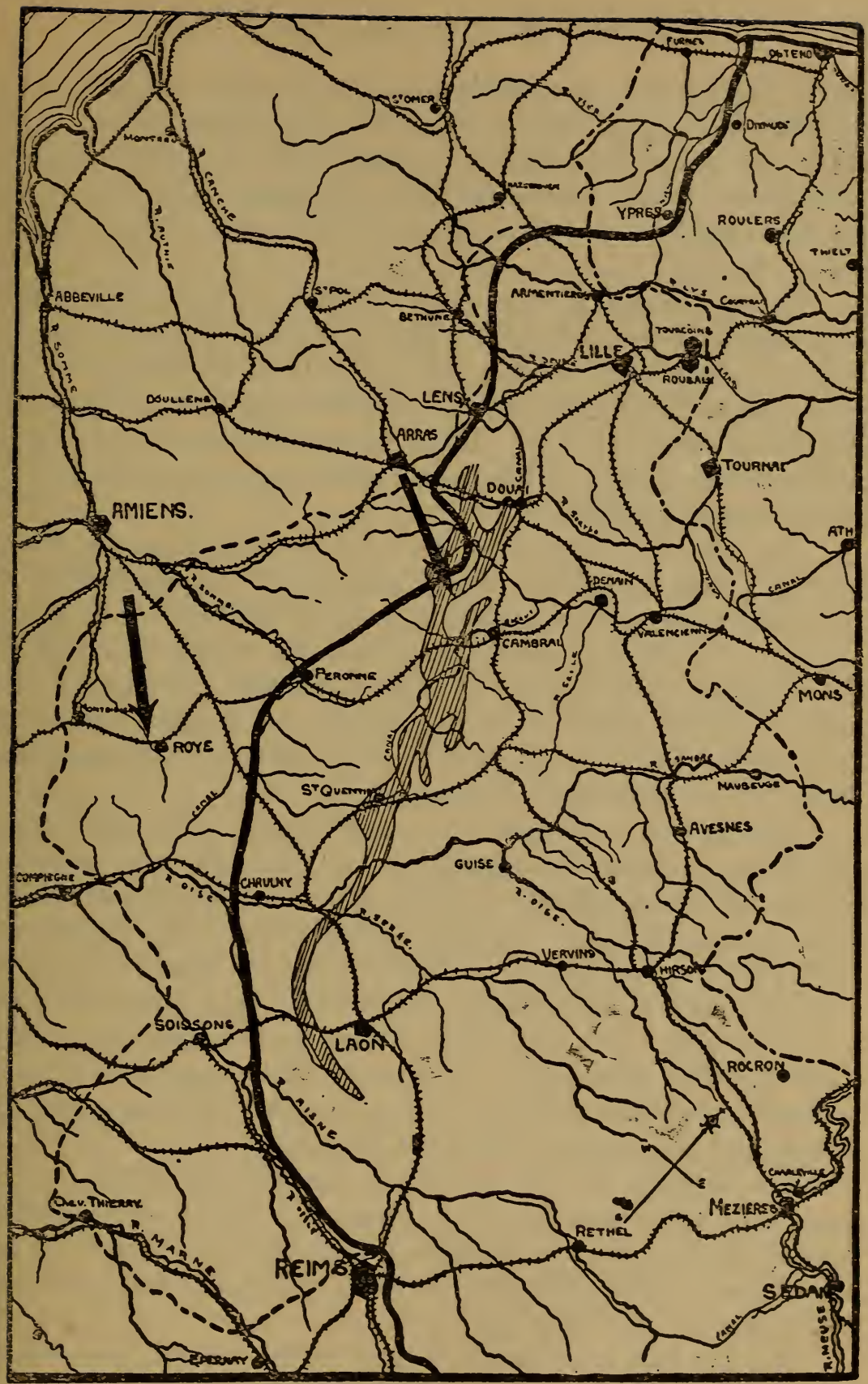
The major attack against the Drocourt-Quéant switch line was launched on September 2d, and, assisted by tanks, progressed rapidly. The infantry captured both the famous Drocourt-Quéant switch itself on a front of 7,000 yards, and its support line, including the village of Dury. Wired trenches and sunken roads however prevented the armoured cars and Tenth Royal Hussars from getting through to the Canal du Nord. In spite of the fact that the enemy had concentrated eight divisions opposite the Canadian Corps the latter would not be denied and a penetration of 6,000 yards and the capture of 5,000 prisoners testified to the success of the day's work.

The Germans were confident that this line, a sort of national life-belt, would prove impregnable. This confidence appeared to be justified, for it consisted of five lines of trenches heavily wired and fortified, while deep dug-outs and tunnels formed a maze of underground works; yet the trench system which took more than two years to build was carried by the Canadians in less than an hour.

THE CANAL NORD LINE

To attack the Canal Nord position required time for reorganization and preparation. The canal was under direct observation, was heavily wired and to carry it successfully meant that the operation had to be part of a general scheme which took time to arrange.

In the interval the Canadian division was rested and refitted



BREAKING THE HINDENBURG LINE

The shaded portions show the intricate Hindenburg defence system. The arrows show the Canadian attacks. Heavy black line is the line of September 3, 1918; broken line to the left is the allied line of July 15th.

and as much artillery as possible taken out of the line. Wire cutting operations, counter battery work and gas concentration were carried on against the enemy in preparation for the final operations. Ammunition dumps and huge piles of bridging material required for the Canal Nord were brought forward and everything necessary got in readiness.

During this period Major General Lipsett, commanding officer of the Third Canadian division, a fine soldier and a brave gentleman, truly loved by all Canadians in France, was transferred to the command of the Fourth British division and was succeeded by Brigadier-General Loomis. When General Lipsett was killed in action shortly afterwards his death was felt to be a personal loss by every Canadian soldier.

The attack of September 27th by the Canadian Corps was part of a large offensive. The Canadians had a battle front of 6,400 yards along the canal but on only 2,600 yards of this was it possible to effect a crossing. After crossing on this narrow front the Canadians were expected to expand fanwise until they held a front of 15,000 yards. The Canadians were to protect the left flank of the Third Army, seize the high ground overlooking the Sensee Valley and capture Bourlon Wood.

At 5.20 A. M. an eighteen-pounder crashed twice, upon which the whole front broke into a terrific roar. A heavy barrage preceded the infantry and the First and Fourth Canadian divisions advanced, accompanied by tanks. At seven o'clock the Fourth division was 1,000 yards beyond the Canal Nord, while the First division was rolling up the Canal Nord line. The enemy fought very stubbornly but our infantry, advancing under a most carefully planned barrage, kept steadily advancing. Meanwhile the engineers, working feverishly, constructed bridges over which light, medium and heavy guns passed and went into action at the gallop.

The rapidity of our advance astonished the enemy, many guns were taken and by nine o'clock the Fourth division had reached the outskirts of Bourlon Wood, which was captured by one o'clock. Meanwhile the "Old First" division had seized its objectives and was hanging on.

Our line had been pushed forward 7,000 yards at its farthest point, and 4,000 prisoners and 102 guns as well as hundreds of machine guns had been captured in this fine bit of tactical work.

Next day, September 28th, the Third, Fourth and First Canadian and Eleventh British divisions continued the advance with the Seventeenth British corps on our left. Heavy fighting was encountered but by evening the Canadian line had been advanced 3,000 yards and our front was established on the high ground overlooking Cambrai. Another 1,000 prisoners and thirty guns were captured during the day.

On Sunday, September 28th, the fighting became heavier, and though 3,000 yards advance was made in places, other sections were held up by machine-gun fire, notably the First division whose flank had become exposed owing to the failure of British troops on the left to keep pace with them. Prisoners captured September 30th stated that they had been instructed to hold the ground at all cost.

On October 1st the enemy, flinging wave after wave of infantry upon our line, made a desperate endeavour to check our advance, without any consideration of the cost of life exacted.

To quote Sir Arthur Currie: "The tremendous exertions and considerable casualties consequent upon the four days' almost continuous fighting had made heavy inroads on the freshness and efficiency of all arms. On the other hand it was known that the enemy had suffered severely, and it was quite possible that matters had reached a stage where he no longer considered the retention of this position worth while. It was, therefore, decided that the assault would be continued on October 1st. The attack made excellent progress in the early stages. The decision of the enemy to resist till the last quickly manifested itself. About 10 A. M. heavy counter-attacks developed.

"To continue to throw tired troops against such opposition without giving them an opportunity to refit and recuperate, was obviously inviting a serious failure, and I accordingly decided to break off the engagement. The five days' fighting had yielded practical gains of a very valuable nature as well as 7,059 prisoners and 205 guns. We had gone through the last organized system of defence on our front, and our advance constituted a direct threat on the rear of the troops to the north, and their withdrawal had now begun.

"Although the ground gained on the 1st of October was not extensive the effects of the battle and of the previous four days'

fighting were far-reaching and made possible the subsequent advances of October and November, in so far as the divisions engaged against the Canadian Corps drew heavily on the enemy's reserve which had now been greatly reduced.

"It is worthy of note that the enemy employed six divisions to re-enforce the four divisions already in the line, making a total of ten divisions engaged since September 27th by the Canadian Corps. In the same period only three additional divisions and one regiment were employed by the Germans to re-enforce the front from Honnecourt to Cambrai, a front of approximately 18,000 yards. This comparison of employment of reserves showed clearly that the enemy was greatly perturbed by the success of our advance and the serious threat it offered, especially to his northern defences."

THE CAPTURE OF CAMBRAI

The high ground to the north and northwest of Cambrai was now in Canadian hands, the British were approaching on the other side of the town and there was but one thing left for the enemy to do.

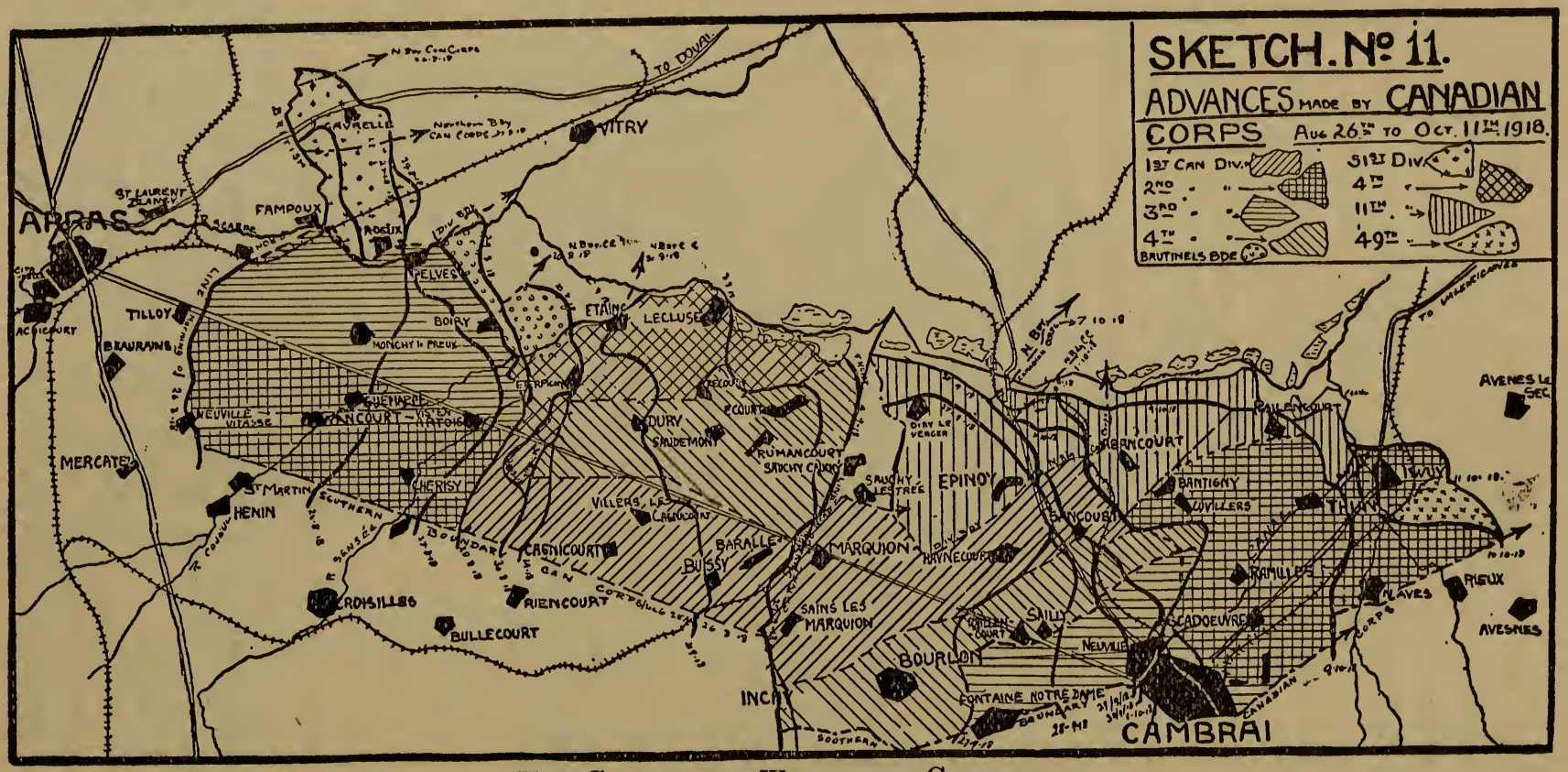
In five days of continuous battle the four Canadian divisions, the Eleventh British and part of the Fifty-sixth British division had crossed the Canal Nord, and had won one commanding position after another in the face of a most bitter opposition, which in itself indicated how vital was the ground to the enemy. In the final two days he had used twelve divisions in counter-attacks vainly trying to stem our advance.

Some idea of the casualties which the enemy must have sustained may be gauged from the fact that on one day, October 1st, we used 7,000 tons of shells.

"At 4.30 A. M., October 8th, the Third Army attacked, and at the same hour an artillery demonstration was carried out on the Canadian front. In spite of the darkness of a rainy night the Canadian attack was launched successfully at 1.30 A. M., October 9th. Rapid progress was made. Cork bridges were thrown across the canal and the Third division patrols were pushing into Cambrai before dawn."

Said Mr. James, official correspondent:

"At half-past one o'clock on the morning of October 9th, in utter darkness, the Canadians entered Cambrai. They took the



How Cambrai was Won by the Canadians

The Arras-Cambrai operations involved the stiffest kind of fighting for the Canadian Corps, but despite resistance they ploughed into the German armies from the initial attack of August 26, 1918, till they achieved the capture of Cambrai on October 9th. General Currie says: "Cambrai was to be deliberately set on fire by the enemy. Huge fires were burning in the Square when our patrols went through, and many others broke out in all parts of the city. Piles of inflammable material were found ready for the torch, but the enemy was unable to carry out his intention owing to our unexpected attack and rapid progress. . . . The fires were successfully checked by a large detachment of Canadian engineers who entered the city with the patrols."

garrison of the town by surprise, quickly obtained the upper hand in all the numerous instances of street encounters and house-to-house fighting, reached and occupied the Place d'Armes, and from there spread throughout the entire area. By daylight they were clear of the southeastern edge of the city and well along the Avenue de Valenciennes; in the southwest they were established at the Paris Gate. Units of our Third division pressed due east to the line of the Scheldt Canal, secured all bridgeheads as far as Eswars, and captured several villages and hundreds of prisoners. By 6 A. M. our engineers had spanned the canal with a pontoon bridge. British troops on the right won to the road leading to Le Cateau.

"We had refrained from shelling Cambrai, hoping to get possession of it unbroken. With this end in view we had moved against it without artillery preparation, had entered it and overcome the resistance of its garrison with bayonet and machine gun. But our care went for nothing. Again the Hun played true to his nature and his reputation. Explosions great and small, followed in some cases by the crashing down of roofs and walls, in others by the leaping up of fires, resounded from all quarters of the town throughout the day of our occupation. Our men fought the garrison —but they could not foresee or forestall the explosions. The city had been thickly planted with mines and incendiary bombs by the enemy, before his flight. The time fuses and other detonating contrivances had not been set for a simultaneous explosion. Singly and in couples, now in one street and again in another, the detonating of mines and bombs continued all day, varied occasionally by the bursting of shells. The Place d'Armes, intact at the time of our entrance, was a square of ruins by nine o'clock that morning. The destructive work of these set explosives was somewhat feebly assisted by occasional shells."

"The battle of Arras-Cambrai," said the corps commander, "so fruitful in results, was now closed. Since August 26th, the Canadian Corps had advanced twenty-three miles, fighting for every foot of the ground and overcoming the most bitter resistance. In that period the Canadian Corps engaged and defeated decisively thirty-one German divisions, re-enforced by numerous marksmen and machine-gun companies. These divisions were met in strongly fortified positions and under conditions most favorable to the defence.

"In this battle 18,585 prisoners were captured by us together with 371 guns, 1,923 machine guns, and many trench mortars. Over 116 square miles of French soil containing fifty-four towns and villages and including the city of Cambrai were liberated. The severity of the fighting and the heroism of our troops may be gathered from the casualties suffered between August 22d and October 11th, which are as follows:

	Officers	Other Ranks
Killed	296	4,071
Missing	18	1,912
Wounded	1,230	23,279
Total	1,544	29,262

"Considering the great number of German divisions engaged, and the tremendous artillery and machine-gun fire power at their disposal the comparative lightness of our casualties testified to the excellence of precautions taken by divisional, brigade and regimental officers to minimize the loss of life, having ever in mind the performance of their duty and the accomplishment of their heavy task."

PURSUING THE ENEMY IN THE OPEN COUNTRY

While some of the Canadians endeavoured to save Cambrai from the flames others pushed forward on the enemy's heels. After being held before the flooded Canal de la Sensee for a few days, patrols found, on October 17th, that the Germans were falling back under cover of a thick fog. On the following day practically all of the infantry of the First and Fourth divisions had crossed the canal and the enemy was closely pursued with the aid of cyclists, cavalry and mounted machine-gun units.

The enemy's demolition of roads, bridges and railways was well planned and thoroughly carried out, and the reconstructive work necessary taxed the resources of the engineers in men and material to the utmost. During the advance a large number of towns were liberated, and as the civilian population had been left without food the duty of feeding these devolved upon the Canadians. Over 70,000 civilians were thus liberated and looked after before Valenciennes was reached, and the extra work devolving upon the horse transport of the Army Service Corps in bringing up the vast quantities of food necessary was very great.

On October 19th the advance continued on the whole corps front, Denain being captured that day. In this large town "there were over 20,000 civilians to greet the Canadians when they entered the place on the heels of the retreating Germans, who greeted our men with indescribable enthusiasm. They were told by the enemy that if they displayed flags or any signs of rejoicing the town would be bombed, but the French people knew differently, and when the infantry swarmed into the town at one end as the Boche galloped out of the other, flags of the Allies appeared as if by magic.

"As soon as the occupation of Denain had been definitely established, a well-known French Canadian officer was sent forward as the town commandant. Earlier in the war this officer was awarded the Legion of Honour by the French authorities for gallantry in the field, and when the civilians saw the ribbon of this honour on his tunic and found that he was a French Canadian, he was given a welcome and reception that could not have been more demonstrative or sincere to the President of the French Republic or the King of the British Empire. The men shook his hand until his arm ached and the women kissed him in the most liberal and unabashed manner. He is now regarded by them as a kind of president or king. His word is law, and his instructions are obeyed with a cheerful willingness."

Meanwhile the Canadian cavalry had been busy and the following interesting account from the official correspondent of the overseas ministry shows that the war had not been robbed of its spectacular side altogether:

"Le Cateau fell to battalions of the Manchester, Lancashire, Dublin, and Inniskilling Fusiliers and the Connaught Rangers on the 10th of October; but the first British troops to enter the town were patrols of the Fort Garry Horse, a regiment of the Canadian cavalry brigade. In less than twenty-four hours the Canadian cavalrymen with other troops advanced eight miles on a three-mile front, cleared that section of the country of the enemy, and thus opened the road for the infantry to forge ahead without hindrance, except from a limited volume of shell fire, into Le Cateau, captured 499 prisoners, several artillery pieces of different calibres, a few trench mortars, tank rifles, two motor-cars, 100 machine guns, and killed a large number of Germans.

"Officers and troopers were almost pulled from their horses as they passed up the streets by the women, who seemed to believe that the best way they could show their gratitude was to kiss every khaki-clad figure, mounted or dismounted, irrespective of rank or anything else. They were delirious with joy. They laughed and cried almost at the same time. In one village men and women rushed out of their houses with cups of coffee and bottles of wine, while machine-gun bullets from enemy positions ahead spat about the street. Immediate danger seemed of small consequence in face of the fact that deliverance had come after four years of serfdom, which the entry of the Canadians had brought to an end. One officer of Lord Strathcona's Horse was pulled from his charger and forced to submit to a heavy barrage of kisses and embraces. This advance to Le Cateau is quite the most romantic experience the Canadian cavalry brigade has had.

"But the incidents with the French villages were only pleasant punctuations in an operation that produced some spectacular features. Several times the troopers used their sabres generously. One squadron of the Fort Garry Horse charged at the gallop into Cattigny Wood, where machine guns were making as much noise as a busy boiler factory produces; and before the wood was finally cleared, approximately 100 Germans were killed with the sabre, and those who escaped death, numbering 200, were taken prisoners.

"An officer with a troop of the Fort Garrys in another case galloped down on a nest of fifteen machine guns. The Boche stood to his guns for a time, and directed such a fire on the charging cavalrymen that soon nearly all the horses were casualties. Undaunted, the troopers pressed forward on foot. By this time the Germans' nerves failed them, and they turned and fled and kept going eastward until rounded up by supporting forces on the right."

CAPTURE OF VALENCIENNES

The division had continued to push forward in face of an ever-increasing opposition until, on October 25th, the canal and inundated area in front of Valenciennes was encountered. Plans were prepared by the First Army to take the city by the Twenty-second and Canadian corps. The former was to take Mt. Houy on October 28th and the latter the high ground overlooking Valenciennes from the south. The Twenty-second corps failed to take

Mt. Houy and the whole of the operation was turned over to the Canadian Corps.

On November 1st the Canadian assault succeeded from the beginning and the objectives were quickly gained. Eight hundred enemy dead were buried and 1,300 prisoners captured while the Canadians had only eighty killed and 300 wounded. Valenciennes was freed of the enemy by night.

"Leap-frogging each other the four Canadian divisions maintained their steady progress into the heart of the Belgium coal district, reaching the outskirts of Mons on the 10th instant, and during the night of November 10th to 11th the divisions resumed their advance, and immediately after dark the troops of the Seventh brigade commenced to close in, and an entry into Mons by way of the railway station was effected before midnight. By 6 A. M., November 11th, the stubborn machine-gun resistance had been broken and Mons cleared of the enemy.

"In the meantime word had been received through First Army that hostilities would cease at 11 A. M. on November 11th, the armistice having been signed on acceptance of our terms. To secure a satisfactory line for the defence of Mons our line was further advanced and six villages and two woods were captured.

"Between October 11th and November 11th the Canadian Corps had advanced to a total depth exceeding 91,000 yards, through a country in which the enemy had destroyed railways, bridges, and roads and flooded areas to further impede our progress. To the normal difficulty of moving and supplying a large number of men in a comparatively restricted area were added the necessity of feeding several hundred thousand people, chiefly women and children, left in a starving condition by the enemy. Several deaths by starvation were experienced in villages or towns which, being kept under hostile shell fire and defended by machine guns, could not be captured rapidly by our troops.

"When it is recalled that since August 8th the Canadian Corps had fought battles of the first magnitude, having a direct bearing on the general situation, and contributing to an extent difficult to realize to the defeat of the German armies in the field, this advance under most difficult conditions constitutes a most decisive test of the superior energy and power of endurance of our men. It is befitting that the capture of Mons should close the

fighting record of the Canadian troops in which every battle they fought is a resplendent page of glory.

"Between August 8th and November 11th, the following had been captured:

Prisoners	31,537
Guns, heavy and field	623
Machine guns	2,842
Trench mortars	336

"Over 500 square miles of territory and 228 cities, towns and villages had been liberated, including the cities of Cambrai, Denain, Valenciennes, and Mons. From August 8th to October 11th, not less than forty-seven German divisions had been engaged and defeated by the Canadian Corps, that is, nearly a quarter of the total German forces on the western front. After October 11th, the disorganisation of the German troops on our front was such that it was difficult to determine with exactitude the importance of the elements of many divisions engaged."

ON THE DAY OF THE ARMISTICE

At 11 A. M., on November 11th, a great stillness came over the battle front, the more noticeable as the last shells had left the guns but a few minutes before. It was a justifiable pride that the Canadians felt in having added Mons, from which the great retreat of the British Army had begun in 1914, to their scroll of victories. The town that will live in British annals had been the beginning of the retreat of the finest force of British regulars that had ever taken the field; it was re-occupied by Canadian troops which the Germans in 1914 had contemptuously called "Canadian Clodhoppers," but whom they had long since come to fear as the most effective fighting force on the western front.

The population of Mons, augmented by hundreds of civilians from nearby places, joined the mighty outburst of enthusiasm when the Canadian divisional commander handed over the town to the people. Its streets were draped with flags and then came the march of the conclusion of the ceremonies, three cheers were given for King Albert from soldiers and civilians alike.

During the great advance from Douai to Mons the depth of the advances made from day to day may be seen best from the fol-

lowing table, which Sir Arthur Currie includes in this report. It shows the daily advance, in yards, of the corps:

From		To		Yards
October	11	October	12	4,000
"	12	"	17	7,000
"	17	"	18	5,000
"	18	"	19	12,000
"	19	"	20	2,500
"	20	"	21	5,000
"	21	"	22	6,000
"	22	"	23	3,000
"	23	"	24	1,000
"	24	November	1	3,500
November	1	"	2	3,000
"	2	"	3	2,000
"	3	"	4	3,000
"	4	"	5	1,500
"	5	"	6	4,000
"	6	"	7	4,000
"	7	"	8	3,500
"	8	"	9	11,000
"	9	"	10	1,500
"	10	"	11	9,000
			Total	91,500 (about 52 miles)

On November 12th, the day after the armistice was signed, King George sent the following message to the army:

Germany, our most formidable enemy, who planned the war to gain supremacy of the world, full of pride in her armed strength and of contempt for the small British army of that day, has now been forced to acknowledge defeat, I rejoice that in this achievement the British forces, now grown from a small beginning to the finest army in our history, have borne so gallant and distinguished a part. Soldiers of the British Empire: . . . In France and Belgium the prowess of your arms, as great in retreat as in victory, has won the admiration of all—friends and foe—and has now by a happy historic fate enabled you to conclude the campaign by capturing Mons, where your predecessors of 1914 shed the first British blood. Between that date and this you have traversed a long and weary road. Defeat has more than once stared you in the face. Your ranks have been thinned again and again by wounds, sickness and death. But your faith has never faltered; your courage has never failed; your hearts have never known defeat. With your allied comrades you have won the day.

Others of you have fought in more distant fields, in the mountains and plains of Italy, in rugged Balkan ranges, under the burning sun of Palestine,

Canadian Official Photograph *From Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

CANADIANS IN THE GREAT CAMBRAI DRIVE

One of the busy scenes just preceding the victorious attack by the Canadians upon Cambrai. In the center can be seen captured Germans carrying in one of their wounded comrades.

HIDDEN DEATH IN THE RUINS OF VALENCIENNES

Canadian patrol advancing, under cover of a Lewis gun placed amidst the ruins, to keep contact with the fleeing Germans.

Mesopotamia, and Africa, amid the snows of Russia and Siberia, and by the shores of the Dardanelles.

I pray that God, who has been pleased to grant a victorious end to this great crusade for justice and right, will prosper and bless our efforts in the immediate future to secure for the generations to come the hard-won blessings of freedom and peace.

The following telegram was received on November 12th by his Excellency the Governor-General, from his Majesty the King:

"At the moment when the armistice is signed, bringing, I trust, a final end to the hostilities which have convulsed the whole world for four years, I desire to send a message of greeting and heartfelt gratitude to my overseas peoples, whose wonderful efforts and sacrifices have contributed so largely to secure the victory which is now won. Together we have borne this tremendous burden in the fight for justice and liberty. Together we can now rejoice at the realization of these great aims for which we entered the struggle. The whole empire pledged its word not to sheath the sword until our end was achieved. That pledge is now redeemed. The outbreak of war found the whole empire one. I rejoice to think that the end of the struggle finds the empire still more closely united by the common resolve held firm through all vicissitudes by the community of suffering and sacrifice, by the dangers and triumph shared together. The hour is one of solemn thanksgiving and of gratitude to God, whose divine providence has preserved us through all perils, and crowns our arms with victory. Let us bear our triumph in the same spirit which we have borne our dangers.

(Signed) GEORGE R. I.

The Canadian troops crossed the German border on December 4th, the First Canadian division at Poteau and another Canadian division further south.

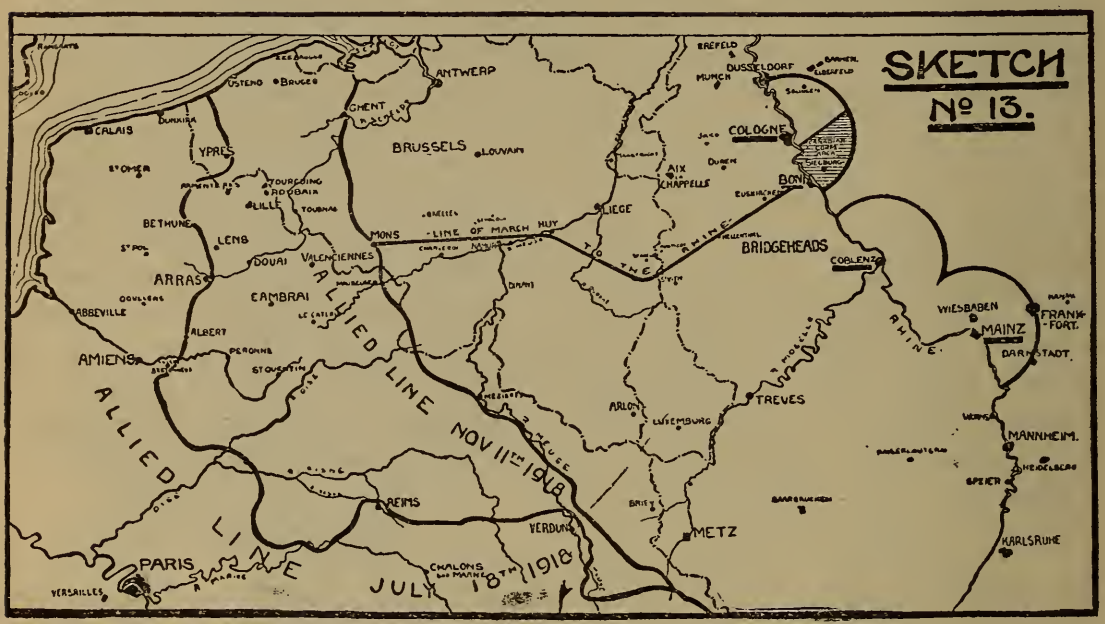
Sir Arthur Currie, commander of the Canadian Corps, who crossed the frontier unofficially the previous day, was accompanied by his staff including Prince Arthur of Connaught who had returned to his duties with the Canadian Corps and the general officer commanding our First division, with his staff.

The Canadian Light Horse furnished an escort and the infantry which was the first to pass the saluting point was the Third battalion of Toronto followed by the First battalion of Western Ontario and the Fourth and Second Canadian batteries. The corps commander, whose fine impressive figure is a rock of elemental strength and power, took the salute exactly on the boundary line. The first men to pass him marched to the tune of the Maple Leaf. It was a

wonderful sight, the outward and visible sign of victory, so hardly won after four years of battle.

THE STORY OF THE CANADIAN CAVALRY

The Canadian cavalry brigade was formed in December, 1914, under General Seely, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., under whose command it remained until May 20, 1918, when it came under the command of Brigadier-General Paterson, D.S.O., of the Fort Garry Horse, which had replaced the King Edward Horse in January, 1916.



THE CANADIAN MARCH TO THE RHINE

"Friday the Thirteenth" was the fatal day in German annals. December 13, 1918, was set as the date on which the Allies would cross the Rhine at all points to be occupied. On the morning of the 13th the Canadian Corps crossed the Rhine at Bonn.

After serving as dismounted troops in the battles of Givenchy, Festubert and in front of Messines, the brigade again became a mounted unit in 1916 preparatory to the Somme offensive. There it took part in the operations south of Albert and in the early part of 1917 during the German retirement to the Hindenburg line.

This was the first fighting in open country for over two years and the taking of the village of Ypres by the Fort Garry Horse marked the capture of the first village by the cavalry on the western front since the first months of the war.

There were also the important engagements at the Bois de

Vallulart, Etricourt Station, Equancourt, Langasvenes, Lieramont, Gyancourt and Saulcourt during March 24th to 27th in which all regiments and the Royal Horse artillery brigade took part with great dash and determination. During these engagements it was discovered that German machine gunners who held out obstinately against infantry surrendered readily to the cavalry, which apparently inspired a considerable amount of fear.

The cavalry brigade again became dismounted troops and occupied part of the trenches near St. Quentin and in May, 1917, carried out some successful raiding operations.

In November the brigade, again mounted, took part in Byng's famous attack on Cambrai. One squadron of the Fort Garry Horse succeeded in crossing the canal by an improvised bridge, before orders countermanding the operation arrived, and galloped forward without support toward the German headquarters east of Cambrai. They succeeded in cutting up a number of German batteries but towards night were almost surrounded and had to cut their way back on foot after stampeding their horses. Later on at Vaucelette Farm Lord Strathcona's Horse drove back the enemy and re-established our line.

During the German offensive of March 21st sent 800 dismounted men into the line at Vermand while the rest of the brigade mounted was attached to the Third cavalry division under Lieutenant-Colonel Paterson. This force re-established our line at Villeselve and were then ordered to take up a new line at Guiscard. From then on this force of Paterson's, working with the French, did excellent work, helping to check German rushes at Mennesis, Bois de Genlis and other points of the British line and at Mesnil St. Georges and Fontaine in support of the French. On March 30th it went into action at Moreuil Wood and succeeded in driving the enemy from that important point which gave direct observation of Amiens. Another good bit of work was carried out by the brigade at Rifle Wood where they succeeded in taking their objective together with 120 prisoners and thirteen machine guns.

Meanwhile the Royal Canadian Horse artillery which had been attached to the Twenty-fourth British division had been fighting a rear-guard action with that division during the whole of the retreat.

For the first time in its career the Canadian cavalry brigade

fought with the Canadian Corps in the battle of Amiens. There the Canadian cavalry went into action at 9.15 A. M. along the Amiens-Roye road. It captured Fresnoy and did valuable work throughout the day co-operating with the tanks in clearing a way for the Canadian infantry. On the 9th it captured the village of Andechy for the French and seized the high ground north and west of Roye.

The brigade did not go into action again till October 9th, when it advanced from Maretz and seized the high ground north-west of Le Cateau, patrols pushing forward into Cateau, Montary and Neuvilly-Inchy. Four hundred prisoners, 100 machine guns and several guns were taken on that occasion, while the operations along a three-mile front cleared six villages and swept the enemy from the field. This was the brigade's last action until November 11th, though the cavalrymen were pursuing the enemy east of Ath on that day.

There were three Victoria Crosses and 391 other decorations won by the brigade which itself was mentioned by name in despatches for five different engagements.

TWO REMARKABLE CANADIAN SOLDIERS

It would be an incomplete chapter that did not deal with the men who have been responsible for the success of Canadian arms. It is obviously impossible to mention all or even a few of those responsible, but looking backward one sees two personalities that stand forth from all others: General Sir Sam Hughes, Minister of Militia of Canada for three years, and General Sir Arthur Currie, Commander of the Canadian Corps.

SIR SAM HUGHES

To General Sir Sam Hughes must be given the credit for having foreseen war with Germany, and preparing for it as well as he could under the conditions. He it was of all others who galvanized Canada into activity; he it was whose enthusiasm and driving power were so contagious that they affected not only his subordinates but the country at large. Sir Sam Hughes will be remembered for the building of Valcartier Camp and the despatch of the first Canadian Contingent. But he did other things of just as great importance. It was he who sought for and obtained for Canada

huge orders of shells from Great Britain and thereby made it possible for Canada to weather the financial storms, pay her way and emerge in better financial shape than she was when the war began.

It is easy to elaborate and build up a business once established; the great credit must go to the man who establishes it.

Sir Sam Hughes was also responsible for the selection of the officers who went overseas with the First Canadian Contingent. Among those who subsequently became commanders of Canadian divisions were Generals Sir Arthur Currie, Sir Richard Turner, Sir David Watson, General Mercer, Sir H. E. Burstall and General Lipsett. Of these General Sir Arthur Currie, who at first commanded a brigade of the First division, became commander of the Canadian Corps.

SIR ARTHUR CURRIE

General Currie was born at Strathroy in Ontario. Going west he settled down in Victoria, B. C., as a young schoolmaster, from which profession he went into the life insurance business and real estate. In 1897 he joined the Eighth Canadian Garrison artillery as a private and three years later received his commission. His company soon became remarkably efficient and for seven years won the efficiency shield. In 1909 he was the officer commanding the regiment.

In 1913 he resigned his command to raise a Highland infantry regiment—the Gay Gordons. He worked hard and when war broke out it was natural that he should have been given command of a brigade.

In September, 1915, he was given command of the First Canadian division and in 1917 was made commander of the Canadian Corps.

Currie has been one of the finds of the war. A general today to be efficient must have some of the qualities of a business man as well as others. But he must be more. Any officer to have the respect and confidence of his men must be just and fearless. He must, if the occasion demands it, go into the danger spot and show no fear. The German method of keeping their officers safe in a shell-proof dugout is not the practice among British troops. The British soldier likes to see his commanding officer and realize that

he too is willing to take all the risks. Of course we have lost many a valuable officer in that way, but many a situation has been saved by the commanding officer taking hold of an apparently hopeless situation and by his inspiring example saving the day.

It was thought at one time that it was impossible for a man not trained in a staff college to become a great soldier. Critics thought at first that perhaps the credit that always came to Currie, no matter what he did, was due to his chief staff officer. But that officer left and was succeeded by another; he in turn passed on but the work of Currie seemed ever to improve. There was nothing left therefore but for the critics to admit that the success of Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie was due to his own ability and no other. His outstanding success, like that of Sir John Monash, a business man and the commander of the Australian corps, showed that a staff college course, though desirable, was not absolutely essential, and that ability, aptitude for the work, resourcefulness, opportunity and actual experience in the field were capable of producing great soldiers.

Largely through the efforts of this big, quiet man, whose consideration, prudence and brilliancy had won the absolute confidence of officers and men, was the success of the Canadian Corps made possible. Always assured that the plans of attack were well matured, and that they would get their full share of artillery support when they went into an attack, men and officers had implicit confidence in their corps commander. As will be seen from the introduction to this book General Currie's thought, like that of all great commanders, was first and always for his men.

And so it came about that the real estate dealer from the Province of British Columbia, by sheer ability, was able to elaborate a fighting force of incomparable effectiveness. Welded by sacrifice and glorious achievements, the Canadians were set the most difficult tasks and, as events proved, not in vain.

CHAPTER XXX

The Collapse of the Enemy

When the allied forces had failed to make an impression upon the Turkish forces in Gallipoli in August, 1915, by their final attack, it was realized that the effort to force the Dardanelles had definitely failed. The British had lost 113,000 men in killed and wounded while 97,000 more had been admitted to hospital for sickness. Late in October, 1915, General Monro, who had succeeded General Hamilton, recommended that the project be abandoned, an opinion approved of by the allied governments.

The evacuation of Gallipoli was as successful a bit of work of the kind as can be found in military history. The problem was an exceedingly difficult one. Our trenches were only about 300 yards from those of the enemy and the beaches from which the embarkation had to be made were all under the range of Turkish guns. It was, moreover, impossible to embark the whole army at once.

Accordingly it was determined to withdraw the army by degrees, leaving behind battalions to carry on the usual fire and deceive the enemy. The plan worked splendidly. Men, guns and ammunition were withdrawn by night to the beaches and transferred to transports while the garrison kept up an appearance of warfare which completely deceived the Turks. The last troops from Suvla left on December 20, 1915, and by January 8, 1916, the evacuation had been completed. Charges with time fuses attached to the piles of stores and the few guns left for purposes of deception blew up as the last of the picked garrisons pulled away from the scene of one of the great and dramatic allied military failures.

Part of the allied armies from Gallipoli moved to Salonika in front of which they settled down in entrenched positions protected by wire and swamps. There was little action in the Balkan theatre in 1916, though Greece was having an exceedingly difficult time keeping neutral. The Greek king and general staff believed that the Central Powers would win but their hereditary enemy was

Turkey, in alliance with those powers. They were unable to join the Central Powers because of the allied army at Salonika and because the allied fleets could readily bombard and blockade the long Grecian coast line.

The wisest, perhaps, of all European statesmen at the time was Venizelos who had been premier of Greece when the Greek Chamber was illegally dissolved by King Constantine in 1915. Venizelos was a great statesman who had the true interests of Greece at heart. During the previous Balkan wars he had proved himself to be head and shoulders above his contemporaries. He realized better than the Greek nation that their whole interest lay in the success of the allied cause, which he, himself, believed would eventually prove victorious.

The action of Greece in permitting the Bulgarian army to occupy Fort Rupel in Greek territory resulted in a pacific blockade of the Greek coast by the allied fleets. Retaliatory attacks were made on the allied embassies in Athens whereupon the Allies demanded the demobilization of the Greek army, a new election and the punishment of those guilty of the riots. These demands were acceded to, but before the election could take place the Bulgars, in August, 1916, advanced into Greek territory capturing Kavalla, without resistance from the Greek army.

As a result of the action of the Greek army at Kavalla a revolution broke out at Saloniki, and Venizelos, failing to induce King Constantine to act, became head of the Provisional Government of the Revolutionists. No policy could be agreed upon either by Constantine or the Allies, but finally the situation became so unsatisfactory that on June 11, 1917, King Constantine was forced to abdicate. Next day he and his family left Greece for Switzerland. that retreat of many exiles.

Venizelos again became Prime Minister and immediately proceeded to weld Greece together in the cause of the Allies. Among other moves the Greek army was organized with a view to coöperation with the allied armies.

In the month of November, 1917, the Allies had captured Monastir in Serbia, but little other activity of a military nature occurred for another year. Suddenly, in the midst of the wonderful movement by which Foch was beating back the German armies in France, the startling news came of great activity in Macedonia,—

activity that was destined to bring about, in dramatic fashion, the downfall of the Central Powers, and bring to end for all time their great dream of world conquest.

BULGARIA'S SURRENDER

On September 16, 1918, the allied armies, under the French General d'Esperey, attacked the Balkan army with results that were swift, dramatic and vital for the Central Powers.

Advancing from Saloniki the British and Greek armies drove at the enemy's right in the region of Lake Dorian. At the same time French and Serbian troops attacked the Bulgarian centre along a twenty-five mile front while an Italian army struck at the enemy's left. As a result of these blows the first and second Bulgarian armies were separated and fled, leaving the road open to Sofia. The first Bulgarian army was caught between the two allied advances and was threatened with annihilation. Formal appeals to Germany and Austria brought nothing but evasive replies; pacifist crowds in Sofia demanded peace and the country was threatened with anarchy. Consequently King Ferdinand was forced to ask for an armistice. On September 26th a Bulgarian officer arrived at d'Esperey's headquarters to ask for a suspension of hostilities until the accredited representatives, said to be on the way, should arrive. This request was naturally refused, but on September 28th the official Bulgarian delegates arrived at Saloniki and on September 29th an armistice was signed by d'Esperey for the Entente Allies and the three Bulgarian representatives. The terms were submitted to the Allies, were approved and hostilities ceased on September 30th at noon.

The terms of the armistice were very drastic. Bulgaria agreed to evacuate all allied territory, demobilize her army at once, surrender all means of transport to the Allies as well as control of navigation on the Danube, allow the Allies free passage through Bulgaria for military purposes, surrender all arms and ammunition and allow of the occupation of all important strategic points in Bulgaria. The armistice meant a complete military surrender and Bulgaria ceased to be a belligerent.

Bulgarian troops began evacuating Serbia on October 1st and the advancing Serbs had only Austrian and German forces to fight. At the same time large forces of German troops were with-

drawn from Rumania and rushed to strategic points in Serbia and Bulgaria for the purpose of holding territory as long as possible.

On October 13th the railway between Berlin and Constantinople was cut and the road to the east finally broken. Meanwhile, on October 4th, King Ferdinand, the Fox, abdicated in favour of his son Boris with the complete approval of the party leaders. The accession of Boris III, a Bulgarian by birth, was received with great enthusiasm by the Bulgarian people. His first decree demobilized the Bulgarian army and shortly afterwards all Germans, Austro-Hungarians and Turks were ordered to leave Bulgaria within a month.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY COLLAPSES

A note addressed by Austria-Hungary to all the Allies on September 15th, inviting them to a conference on neutral territory, showed her anxiety for peace at any price. There was no attempt to take the note seriously by the Allies who realized that internal affairs in the dual monarchy were desperate.

At the end of October the final Italian offensive was made. The Tenth Italian Army including the Britsh forces was under the command of General Lord Cavan. The Eighth and Twelfth Italian armies on the left attacked the Grappe region while Lord Cavan's army crossed the Piave River and speedily secured the eastern bank.

Immediate success was attained by the three Italian armies on the entire front of thirty miles, the enemy breaking before the onward sweep of the Allies. A week after the offensive began 50,000 prisoners had been taken, the Austrians had been chased across the Livenza River toward Tagliamento; and all the strong positions between the Brenta and the Piave were regained.

On October 25th the Hungarian seaport of Fiume was seized by Croatian rebels.

On October 28th Austria-Hungary, in a new note to President Wilson, declared herself ready "without awaiting the result of the other negotiations" to negotiate peace and an immediate armistice on all her fronts. The Emperor issued a manifesto promising a federal state for each race under the monarchy. President Wilson then officially recognized the claims to separate nationality of the Czecho-Slovaks and the Jugo-Slavs, which forthwith formed national

executives, for the Czechs at Prague and for the Jugo-Slavs at Agram. The Austrian fleet was handed to the Jugo-Slavs and the Danube fleet to the Czechs.

The Austrian-Hungarian aggregation immediately began to disintegrate. The Austro-German provinces declared themselves an autonomous state; the Ruthenians gathered at Lemberg and the Poles at Cracow. A new Provisional Cabinet was formed at Vienna for the purpose of bringing about a speedy peace, transferring affairs from the central government to the national governments and safeguarding their common interests.

The Austrian defeat had become a rout when, on October 30th, the railway communication between the plains and the mountains was cut. On October 31st General Diaz was appealed to for an armistice, and on November 3d, Austria-Hungary surrendered at the moment when the Twenty-ninth Italian army corps entered Trent and another Italian force had landed at Trieste.

Since October 24th the allied armies in Italy had captured about 300,000 prisoners and 5,000 guns; of these prisoners 20,000 had been taken in two days by Cavan's army.

The terms of the armistice provided for the handing over of the effective part of the Austrian fleet, the demobilization of the army, the occupation by the Allies of the Istrian peninsula, the Trentino and a portion of the Dalmation coast with its hinterland, and the islands. Complete control was also to be yielded over the Austro-Hungarian railways and roads, thereby opening up a new and rapid approach to the south and eastern German border.

TURKEY'S FAILURE

The brilliantly successful campaign in Palestine and Syria, which converged upon Aleppo, ended by the capture of the entire Turkish armies of defence.

The year had opened auspiciously for Turkey. Russia had failed and as a result Turkey had been able to recapture Trebizond, Erzerum, Ardaham, Batum and Kars in rapid succession. They also took Tabriz and endeavored to secure the necessary area of Persia as a base of operations against the British.

All the ambitions of Turkey were countered by the successes of the British in Palestine and Syria, together with Bulgaria's fall. The young Turks and Enver Pasha had steadily declined in

power in face of the privations which their policy had brought upon the country.

Towards the end of October General Townshend, who had been a prisoner of war since the fall of Kut, was liberated in order to carry the message that Turkey wished to open negotiations for peace and on October 30th the Turkish plenipotentiaries signed an armistice at Mudros.

By the terms of this armistice the allied fleets secured the passage of the Dardanelles and the Bosporus to the Black Sea; the occupation of the Dardanelles forts, the withdrawl of the Turkish armies within Asia Minor and the immediate repatriation of all allied prisoners of war without reciprocity, were other provisions.

In accordance with these terms the allied fleet anchored off Constantinople by November 13th and French and English troops landed at the Turkish capital on November 21st. No particular animosity or even curiosity seemed to be apparent among the Turkish population, but the Germans mixed in the crowds were exceedingly interested in every move of the allied troops.

THE WAR IN MESOPOTAMIA

At the end of April, 1917, Sir Stanley Maude had driven back the two Turkish army corps and had secured Bagdad. The Russian defection had affected the situation and it was thought that Falkenhayn would endeavor in the autumn to recapture Bagdad. During the summer heat Maude's army rested but with the cooler weather he began operations and on September 20th, by a fine bit of work, surrounded and captured Ramadi, together with 3,454 Turks and thirteen guns. On October 20th he occupied Kizil Robat forcing the Thirteenth Turkish corps to retreat and clearing the British flanks for a fresh advance up the Tigris. On November 5th he routed the Eighteenth Turkish corps and next day occupied Tekrit. Maude was now only 100 miles from Mosul in a much better position to carry on his work. He had taken the army in Mesopotamia at a time when it had been almost ruined by mismanagement and failure and had evolved a highly efficient organized force out of it. His victories of Kut and Bagdad were brilliant achievements seldom equalled in the history of British arms. But he was not destined to receive his full reward, for on November 18th he died suddenly of cholera.

He was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Sir W. Marshall. During December and January the Turks near Hit, after being re-enforced, were attacked and routed with the loss of 5,236 men and twelve guns. The magnificent victory of General Allenby in Palestine now permitted of a plan dear to the heart of many people who knew of the wonderful fertility of that region in bygone ages. Accordingly the Euphrates district was garrisoned in order to encourage the development of agriculture. Hundreds of tons of seed grain were planted and arrangements made to open up a branch railroad to bring the harvest into Bagdad, while irrigation methods were introduced. The lines of communication along the Tigris and Euphrates were kept open and traffic encouraged, while the port of Basra was improved, docks built and dredging carried out that would enable ocean vessels to dock.

In the first week of April the British had advanced to within 250 miles of Aleppo and at the end of April the advance was resumed up the Mosul road, Kifri being entered on April 27th. Simultaneously the British had progressed along the direct road from Bagdad which follows the line of the Tigris River to Mosul. The next advance here was not made until October by which time General Marshall had pushed on the construction of the railway line north of Tekrit.

On October 20th British columns operating on both sides of the Tigris River drove back Turkish forces upon our own cavalry. After a six days' fight fifty miles south of Mosul, which ended on October 30th, General Marshall captured the entire Turkish force of 7,000 men.

CONQUEST OF THE HOLY LAND

With impressive simplicity, Lieutenant-General Sir Edmund Allenby, on December 11, 1917, entered on foot the sacred city of Jerusalem. A proclamation establishing martial law in the city made it known that every sacred building would be protected and maintained.

Between October 31st and December 9th Allenby had taken 12,000 prisoners, 100 guns and much material.

The British General then proceeded to protect the line now covering Joppa and Jerusalem and it was gradually pushed forward at both ends. The Turks by counter-attacking, tried without

success to break into the allied positions and the British steadily advanced until in early January they were thirteen miles on their way to Shechem.

A big drive eastward on February 19th carried the British forward on a fifteen-mile front to the edge of the Jordan Valley, in spite of obstinate Turkish resistance. On February 21st Australian cavalry entered Jericho and patrols pushed down to the shore of the Dead Sea and Mandesi ford, ten miles from the mouth of the Jordan.

Again turning his attention to the north General Allenby, on March 4th, struck on a front of eighteen miles across the Shechem road and made progress along the coast and foothills overlooking the plain of Sharon. Towards the end of March an attack was made across the Jordan, Es Salt was captured and several miles of the Hedjaz railway were destroyed.

The Turks then assumed the offensive northeast of Joppa but were driven back. The Arabs continued to harass the Turks along the Hedjaz line. Since the declaration of their independence the Arabs of the Hedjaz had cleared the Red Sea coast for 800 miles of the enemy and accounted for 40,000 Turkish troops. Es Salt was again taken by the British and abandoned for the second time.

There now came a lull in the fighting in Palestine. Direct railway connection was made between Cairo and Palestine upon the completion of the swing bridge over the Suez Canal and preparations were made to set up a civil administration in the occupied territory. Some attempts were made by the enemy to regain the crossings of the Jordan and Jericho but failed and the fighting line became stabilized from Arsuf on the coast ten miles north of Joppa, through Mt. Ephraim, across the trunk road between Shechem and Jerusalem, along the Wadi di Auja to the Jordan crossing and then along its banks to the Dead Sea.

On September 18th British troops in Palestine under General Allenby attacked the Turkish position on a front of ten miles, from Rafat to the sea. Since the month of April Allenby had been held up on a sixty-mile front from the edge of the Plain of Sharon on the sea, southwest to the River Jordan. On his front were the seventh and eighth, and on his right the fourth, Turkish armies. The total strength of the Turks was estimated to be between 100,000 and 150,000 bayonets.

General Allenby scored a brilliant series of successes. Breaking through the Turkish lines near the sea he poured his cavalry and camel corps through the breach and began an encirclement of the seventh and eighth Turkish armies. The initial successes were obtained on the historic field of Esdraelon or Jezreel where the Israelites fought battles as recounted in the Bible. The region is famous as the battlefield of Armageddon, and, according to Revelation, is to be the scene of the decisive battle at the end of the world.

The cavalry, consisting of British yeomanry, Australian light horse and Indian cavalry, proceeded north along the western edge of the Mount Ephraim range, turned east toward the Jordan and thus placed itself in the rear of the two Turkish armies by occupying the valley between El Afule and Nazareth. The circle was completed on October 22d and King Hussein had also destroyed the railway communications of the fourth army, thereby preventing its retreat.

Damascus, the capital of Syria and the most beautiful city in Asia Minor, was taken October 1st by the British and Arabs; a week later they had occupied towns thirty miles northwest of Damascus and on the same day a French naval division entered Beirut port, 160 miles northwest of Damascus. This gave the Allies an unbroken front from Beirut to the desert and they pushed on rapidly towards Aleppo, the main base of the Turkish armies in Asia Minor.

British forces along the Tigris and Euphrates also began a forward movement towards Mosul to connect up with Allenby and thus form an unbroken front from the Mediterranean across Mesopotamia into Persia. Between September 18th and October 5th Allenby had captured 71,000 prisoners and 350 guns while the Arabs had taken 8,000 prisoners in addition. The three Turkish armies had practically been destroyed.

Mr. W. T. Massey, official correspondent with the British troops, in a despatch dated September 23d, describes the havoc wrought upon one enemy column:

"Today saw one of the most remarkable sights which a soldier ever gazed upon. From Balata, where the road from Nabulus falls through craggy hills and narrow passes to Wadi Farah, there is a stretch more than six miles long covered with débris of the retreating army. In no section of Napoleon's retreat from Moscow could

there have been a more terrible picture of hopeless, irretrievable defeat.

"In this area alone were eighty-seven guns of various calibres, fully 1,000 horse and oxen drawn vehicles, nearly 100 motor lorries, cars, field kitchens, watercarts, and a mass of other impedimenta. The road was black with the carcasses of thousands of animals and bodies of dead Turks and Germans.

"This was the work of the Irish, Welsh and Indian infantry. The artillery pressure behind the indomitable British and Australian airmen in front of the infantry had forced the enemy over the hills into the road, and just as the guns began to shell the retiring transport airmen swooped down to 200 feet and bombed the head of the column. Once that was accomplished, time only was required to finish the job, and this was done with surprising thoroughness.

"The enemy troops, seeing escape with the vehicles was impossible, fled to the hills. Some who had endeavored to find an outlet up the Beisan road fell into the hands of cavalry waiting for them. Others, accepting the inevitable, sought refuge in our lines.

"For effectiveness of systematic bombing it is difficult to find a parallel to this destroyed column. The operations working up to this débâcle were magnificently conducted."

It has been said that the operation as carried out by Allenby, originally in charge of the cavalry corps in French's contemptibles, and with great infantry experience on the western front, was as perfect an example of the coöperation of infantry and cavalry as can be found in history.

Since the Dardanelles campaign the British army, with its Arab allies, had encountered thirty-four Turkish divisions in Palestine of which, by October, twenty-six had ceased to exist. Seventy-five thousand prisoners had been taken by Allenby and the Turks had been driven from half of Syria and were threatened with the loss of Aleppo. Their broken army was estimated to number only 12,000 and it never offered to fight again.

On the advance of the allied force this remnant of the Turkish army withdrew behind Aleppo which was entered by the British on October 26th. Five days later Turkey had capitulated and Alexandretta, the last port of Syria, was occupied on November 10th by the Allies.

Canadian Official Photograph.

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FIGHTING PLANES OF CANADIAN OFFICERS

The machines of a Royal Air Force Squadron in France. It was in such planes as this that Canada's aces achieved deathless glory in battle against the Hun.

Photo from Press Illustrating Service.

GIANT HANDLEY-PAGE BOMBING PLANE

This huge air dreadnought is capable of carrying forty passengers. This type of plane was designed to attack Berlin and carries a huge load of bombs and is heavily armed. Quantity production had just begun when the war ended.

British Official Photograph. *From Underwood and Underwood.*

ONE NIGHT'S FOOD FOR A BOMBING SQUADRON

This great mass of high explosives is a typical load of one of many Allied squadrons of planes which made nightly raids on German ammunition dumps, railways and concentration points.

CHAPTER XXXI

With the Canadian Airmen

The year 1918 was memorable as the first year in which aircraft were used as a separate arm of the service. By the fusion of the Royal Naval Air Service and the Royal Flying Corps the Royal Air Force was established. When the Germans were re-enforced in 1918 by troops from the eastern theatre and pressed back the allied lines, the part played by aircraft was remarkable. The preparations for any offensive are most intricate and when time is a vital factor in obtaining a decision any action which hampers or postpones that offensive is of extreme importance.

By persistent offensive tactics against lines of communication, depots, troops and railways, with bombs and machine guns, and by incessant vigilance in aerial reconnaissance the enemy was forced to confine all his important movements of troops to night and much time was thereby gained for us.

Through aircraft observation, "in one day 127 hostile batteries were successfully engaged to destruction; and on the same day twenty-eight gun pits were destroyed, eighty damaged and sixty explosions of ammunition caused." During the autumn victories of the Allies the value of aircraft became even more marked and all previous doings were surpassed. In one day sixty-four enemy machines were destroyed and others driven down.

FUNCTION OF AIRCRAFT

Besides the regular operations of aircraft such as artillery observation, reconnaissance, co-operation with infantry in attack, bombing, submarine hunting and observation for the navy new functions were continually being found for this newly developed branch of the service. In particular there was a far greater co-operation between infantry and aircraft. The first mention made of attempts to relieve a beleaguered garrison from the air was in the case of General Townshend's army when aircraft dropped tobacco and small quantities of other material into the British

camp. During the German rush which cut off French troops fighting on Kemmel Hill, airplanes dropped packages of small arm ammunition on the isolated area, thereby enabling the garrison to continue its good work.

German airplanes also carried food and ammunition to isolated units in the Marne and Aisne areas and this became the regular practice with all belligerents during big movements.

Airplanes almost from the beginning of the war were used for carrying spies to and from enemy territory. On October 3d airplanes dropped smoke bombs which made a smoke screen for our advancing troops. For the rapid transportation of officials airplanes were greatly used in the war.

Airmen soon after their instruction began were classified according to their capabilities, for it was quickly recognized that fighting, long-distance bombing, raids, artillery observation, infantry co-operation and reconnaissance required special qualifications. The quickness of eye and instinct, so essential to the first-class air fighter, are not those which are necessary for the good long-distance bomber.

AIRCRAFT AND INFANTRY

Aircraft, co-operating with infantry, tanks and cavalry during advance and retirement, became an established phase of army tactics for which special training was necessary and specially designed machines usually employed. Under such conditions vast numbers of low-flying machines harassed the enemy with bombs and machine-gun fire, while other types of machine, by aerial observation and "contact" work, kept up connection between units and prevented confusion. In the Cambrai fighting of November, 1917, for example, our machines flew as low as fifty feet and swept the streets with machine-gun fire. In that battle the German infantry was helped by "hordes of their airplanes."

In another case, in March, 1918, two German divisions were completely broken up by one hundred French airplanes. In June, 1918, the enemy employed this method with great boldness and in the later fighting of the year there was unprecedented activity in this kind of airplane work.

In the Turkish retreat the Mesopotamia airplanes co-operated effectively with our infantry and inflicted heavy losses, and on

March 9th to 10th the participation of aircraft was a feature of the advance in Palestine. In the autumn victories in Palestine and Serbia aircraft co-operated with tanks and infantry with great effect.

AIR FIGHTING

This phase of work speedily became a special branch, for which obviously suitable pupils were trained. The type of machine used for the purpose rapidly improved and became specialized. Single-seater scouts carried two and often four machine guns. There was also a two-seater fighting machine which acted as escort for this craft.

During the year July 1, 1917, to June 30, 1918, 2,150 enemy planes were destroyed by the British on the western front and another 1,083 were driven down out of control. During the same period R. A. F. units working with the navy accounted for 628 enemy planes. British machines missing amounted to 1,186.

From March 21 to August 15, 1918, the French lost 348 planes and destroyed or drove down out of control 1,325 enemy machines and 147 enemy balloons. In August and September 1,962 enemy planes and 489 allied planes were brought down in all the theatres of war. From June 1st to November 8th on the western front alone 1,837 enemy machines were destroyed by British airmen.

RAIDS BY THE ALLIES

The most striking development occurred in airplane offensive work. The bombing of areas behind the battle line steadily increased in intensity and it was commonly said that except during infantry attacks the safest part of the front was the front line trench.

In 1918 the Allies achieved a definite preponderance in aircraft so that machines could be spared for long-distance work. For the purpose of carrying out the idea of air work as a thing apart, a division of the Royal Air Force called the Independent Air Force was formed and this force occupied itself with long-distance operations against numerous manufacturing centres on the Rhine. By such means a district of the Rhine Valley some 250 miles long, crowded with war industries and intersected by a railway system of vital strategic importance to the German army, was brought into the war zone.

It is interesting to note that up to July, 1918, the enemy had been able to make only 114 raids on England, whereas in the month of July alone the British made 96 raids on Germany. Our raids into Germany all had military objectives and were not of the nature of reprisals. From June 1st to November 8th the British made 287 raids on German towns dropping 536 tons of bombs.

The bombing of aerodromes, enemy communications and troops on the western front was on a gigantic scale. In the week

How Britons Answered the German Air Raids
This map shows the towns bombed from the air by British aviators in reprisal for German air raids on open towns.

June 27th to July 3d the British dropped 219 tons of bombs exclusive of raids and naval operations. During the two weeks ending August 23d the British alone dropped 594 tons of bombs in the battle area. From March 21st to May 21st the British dropped 2,000 tons of bombs. In April the enemy dropped 2,033 bombs in France; the British dropped 23,900. Vigorous offensives from the air were carried on against Zeebrugge, Ostend, Bruges and aerodromes and works in Belgium, as many as one hundred airplanes participating in a single bombing raid.

GERMAN RAIDS

In addition to the German raids referred to in Chapter XIX on England the Germans maintained a steady airplane offensive against our depots, communications and aerodromes on the western front. From May 15th to June 1st our hospitals also on the northern coast of France were bombed under circumstances that left no doubt that the attacks were deliberate. In these hospital raids 248 were killed and 593 wounded.

AIRPLANE DEVELOPMENT

Four years of war probably developed the airplane more than twenty-five or thirty years of peace would have done. The tremendous competition to beat each other resulted in the concentration of much of the best brains and the finest engineering skill of both belligerents in developing better engines, models, stability and control. It was quickly discovered that a general purpose machine was of little use because it was an easy prey to the faster fighting machine. Definite types for special kind of work were therefore evolved and elaborated along their own special lines. When the armistice was signed the latest development in the bombing plane, a Handley-Page British machine, was almost ready to bomb Berlin. This huge biplane, eighty feet in width and equipped with several engines, would have been ready in another two days to fly over the German capital. It was capable of carrying three tons of bombs and actually carried forty passengers in its trial flight on November 15th. That was an experience that Berlin probably had few regrets about missing.

There seems to be no limit either to the carrying capacity, range of flight, altitude or speed of the airplane. Single-seater scouts have exceeded a speed of 150 miles an hour.

It is less dangerous to fly machines today than it was in the beginning because all modern airplanes are far more stable than the original machines were. The airman of the latter days of the war required to be far better qualified than his early predecessor. He had to understand wireless telegraphy, gunnery and bomb dropping, to operate two or more engines, and learn the difficult art of formation flying. He had to thoroughly understand the numerous instruments on his machine in order to navigate during all weathers, at great heights and over long distances.

AIRCRAFT AT SEA

At the end of the war aircraft were taking almost as great a part in sea warfare as they were in land warfare and very little was done at sea without effective aerial observation. When it is realized that the first use of seaplanes for observation work among the British occurred during the battle of Jutland, one can see what rapid progress had been made.

A considerable amount of fighting between aircraft and marine craft occurred, while freedom for aerial reconnaissance over the seas was keenly contested by the rival air forces.

In controlling the enemy's submarine activities aircraft proved to be most valuable. Airships, airplanes, sea planes and observation balloons working from the decks of warships were employed in large numbers. The actual destruction of enemy submarines has been brought about many times through bombs dropped from aircraft.

THE COMPOSITION AND CONTROL OF THE AIR SERVICE

In early 1918 the Air Council in England was appointed to supersede the Air Board. The Air Ministry supplied to the Admiralty and to the War Office contingents of the Royal Air Force which came into existence on April 1, 1918, under Lord Rothermere. These contingents were then under the supreme military or naval command. The Independent Air Force operated directly under the Air Ministry.

The production of airplanes was under the Minister of Munitions. Lighter-than-air craft remained under the Admiralty, the Air Ministry supplying the necessary personnel for the Royal Air Force.

When the armistice was signed on November 11th King George sent the following message to Lord Weir, Secretary of State and President of the Air Council:

To the Right Hon. Lord Weir, Secretary of State and President of the Air Council.

In this supreme hour of victory I send greetings and heartfelt congratulations to all ranks of the Royal Air Force. Our aircraft have been ever in the forefront of the battle; pilots and observers have consistently maintained the offensive throughout the ever-changing fortunes of the day; and in the war zones our gallant dead have lain always beyond the enemies' lines or far out to sea.

Our far-flung squadrons have flown over home waters and foreign seas, the western and Italian battle lines, Rhineland, the mountains of Macedonia, Gallipoli, Palestine, the plains of Mesopotamia, the forests and swamps of East Africa, the northwest frontier of India, and the deserts of Arabia, Sinai and Darfur.

The birth of the Royal Air Force, with its wonderful expansion and development, will ever remain one of the most remarkable achievements of the great war.

Everywhere, by God's help, officers, men and women of the Royal Air Force have splendidly maintained our just cause, and the value of their assistance to the navy, the army, and to home defence has been incalculable. For all their magnificent work, self-sacrifice, and devotion to duty, I ask you on behalf of the empire to thank them.

GEORGE R. I.

CANADIANS AND THE ROYAL AIR FORCE

Canadians took to flying with great enthusiasm and large numbers joined the Royal Flying Corps and Royal Naval Flying Corps. In August, 1918, after much discussion, the Royal Canadian Air Service came into being under the Director of the Naval Department. Provision for training had already been made on a very large scale in Canada and when America came into the war our aerodromes and training facilities were placed at her disposal. Practically all of the instruction given American fliers, during the first year of the war particularly, was by Canadian fliers who had returned from overseas.

Canadians made wonderful fighters, and the majority of the greatest fighters in the R. A. F. were Canadians. The premier British ace has finally been decided to be Major Mannock of India, with a record of seventy-four planes to his credit, a record that was only one better than Lieutenant-Colonel Bishop, V.C., the Canadian, who brought down seventy-three planes.

The R. F. C. and later the R. A. F. in Canada was under the command of Brigadier-General Hoare, C.M.G., who had before the war been a cavalry officer in India. Since the appearance of the force 6,000 air mechanics, 5,000 cadets and 800 officers were trained under his command and 4,300 trained pilots were sent overseas for service. Approximately 13,000 Canadians joined the R. A. F. and its predecessor the R. F. C.

In 1919 General Seely, the British Air Minister, asked for $325,000,000 for the Air Ministry and a vote for 150,000 airmen.

The House of Commons gave it to him without question. In his speech in connection with this vote General Seely said: "It is in a large measure due to the splendid quality of the man-power of the empire, of which Canada supplied so large a proportion, that Britain became master of the air, and has raised her air-power to a higher pitch than any of our Allies." General Seely added: "Our record is 50,000 air battles during the war." The general added some interesting facts hitherto unknown to the general public. Among others was the fact that the wireless telephone had been invented and installed on airplanes; that a new seaplane capable of carrying 14,000 pounds and flying one hundred miles an hour had been perfected; that an airplane capable of lifting 20,000 pounds was under course of construction; that a new plane with a speed undreamed of was being built, and that a new air camera had been invented.

General Seely laid great stress on the future use of seaplanes for use along great river stretches such as the Nile, the St. Lawrence and other great water routes over which ordinary ships can travel at a very few miles an hour.

AIR SHIPS

During the war little was heard about British airships. When war broke out Great Britain had exactly two airships ready for service, and these began at once to patrol the channel, looking for hostile warships, blockade runners, mines and other nuisances. When the war ended there were 103 British airships in commission.

The total flying hours made by British airships during the war are of interest:

1915	339 hours
1916	7,678 "
1917	22,389 "
1918 (to October)	53,534 "

The British airships ranged from the submarine scout, or S. S., a small, one-engined, non-rigid type, up to the huge rigid type nearly 600 feet long. Between these two extremes were S. S. twins, Coastals, Coastal Stars, Parsevals and North Seas. The last called the N. S. was a particularly strong, weather-worthy type designed to scout for the fleet and to carry a crew of ten for a twenty-four-hour trip. An N. S. holds the record for the

longest flight, having remained in the air sixty-one hours. All of these types helped to guard convoys, looked for U-boats, kept the enemy from seeing what our ships were doing and patrolled the British coast lines.

At the time of writing, the British dirigible, R-34, has made the pioneer balloon voyage across the Atlantic, covering 3,200 miles from East Fortune, Scotland, to Mineola, New York, in 108 hours. The R-34 is 670 feet long; capacity of gas bag, 2,200,000 cubic feet. She carries a crew of thirty. The R-34 and a sister ship were built originally to bomb Berlin. Other British airships twice as long, with a range of 20,000 miles, capable of travelling at a speed of fifty-one miles an hour, are said to be on the way.

CHAPTER XXXII

Britain's Effort History's Marvel

When Prussia—and her dupes—went to war it was in the same spirit of ruthless conquest that has characterized her since the days of Attila. As then the Huns swept aside everything that lay in their path; neutrals were invaded, innocent men, women and children butchered, cities laid in ashes, sacred agreements torn to pieces. It is true that the German nation had become efficient in material things; the soul of Prussia had changed little in a thousand years. A veneer of mental culture had overlaid and deceived the world as to the heart of the Prussian people, which, as events have shown, is just as savage as it ever was.

The Prussian is a realist; little of great worth springing in the realm of the imagination either in music, art or literature has come from the Prussian people. The Prussian calls pork pig flesh, a term that is repulsive to the Anglo-Saxon, but the Prussian believes in calling things what they are. A bully by instinct and nature he elbows women off the sidewalk and precedes them in getting on a street car. He is the superior being; then why not show it?

Not seeing below the surface or believing in such things as sentiment, he eliminated this from his mind as something which did not exist. The British Lion he regarded as a mere moneybag and a whelp of the seas. The Prussian could calculate the wealth of Britain in gold; he could estimate the number of her men and guns. But outside of her wealth and her navy he held Great Britain to be of no account. There was no way of calculating the soul of a nation and the Prussian could not know that the greatest wealth of Great Britain was after all in her national spirit.

When Germany went to war she could not and did not believe that Britain would enter the arena, for the sake of a mere signature. When she learned that the British people believed in keeping their pledges given to Belgium her rage knew no bounds. The hate and jealousy of the British Empire vented itself in an outburst of

national rage such as the world had never seen. The whole nation and the army worked themselves into a frenzy in and out of season by singing Lissauer's "Hymn of Hate," whose refrain is "Gott strafe England."

This hatred of England turned to an equally virulent hatred of the United States when, after bearing for two and a half years the insults and threats of the Prussian autocracy, that nation also took up arms to defend her honour.

It was therefore an astounding thing for Germany to witness the rallying of the British Colonies to the side of "the ice-cold haberdashers of the Thames." Instead of falling away and declaring their individual freedom the extraordinary sight was witnessed of these same colonies pouring out their treasures and offering their sons by the tens of thousands for the sake of sentiment,—because of an idea. India, Canada, Australia, New Zealand hastened to support the mother country and during more than four long years continued with unswerving fidelity to tax themselves more billions and sacrifice further tens of thousands of sons in order that all which Germany stood for should be driven from the earth. It was the unconquerable spirit of men with British ideals and French ideals that made conquest by such a nation as Germany impossible. If might was right the Allies were prepared to go down forever in opposing such a hateful belief.

One of the most eloquent tributes to the part Great Britain was playing in the war appeared two and a half years after the beginning of hostilities in the *Boston News Bureau* and *Wall Street Journal.* It said:

"All the wonders of the world, ancient or modern, fade when compared with what Britain is doing to-day. A commercial nation of not 50,000,000 people suddenly summoned to arms where no arms existed has produced a bigger army than history ever before recorded, and a war machine in Europe that for wealth of shell, explosive and war power is the amazement of the Germans. Britain has done in thirty months what Germany took thirty years to do, and she has done it more thoroughly and on a vaster scale. Without an English aeroplane engine capable of circling her own islands she has vanquished the boasted Zeppelin and is the mistress of her own skies. With submarines by the hundred threatening her coast defences and her food supply she has swept all oceans, bottling

the German fleet, with the exception of an odd raider like the *Moewe* and the vessel that is now preying upon merchantmen in the South Atlantic. She has made the English Channel her multiple-track ocean railway to France, with no loss by Zeppelin or submarine; fought in Africa, at the Canal, the Dardanelles; grappled with the Turk and the Bulgar; changed generals and admirals in command; changed cabinets; fed the armies of France; maintained the armies and the governments of Belgium and Serbia, and altogether advanced three thousand millions of dollars, or three times the national debt of the United States, to her war allies.

"This is admittedly some considerable achievement. While the United States has been trying to find out how to make military rifles in quantities and has unfilled orders for them amounting to hundreds of millions of dollars, England has been making rifles by the million for herself and her allies, cannon by the thousand, boots and coats by the million for herself and her allies, and most wonderful of all, she has done all this, is doing it and is prepared to go on doing it while her manufacturing, her trade relations and her overseas commerce remain unimpaired. She has grabbed the trade of the world, so that her enemies are struggling on half rations with food, rubber and metal supplies cut off from the outside world except as new territory is taken. This combination of war and trade achievement by Great Britain was never before dreamed of. Two years ago nobody imagined that the war cost to Great Britain would be more than five or six billions; to-day it is twice that amount and Great Britain is preparing to double it again.

"Each achievement seems to be the supreme marvel until the next one is considered, but the greatest wealth of Britain after all was in her national spirit."

Speaking of that soul which has been waked by the war: "It is fighting mad to-day and getting madder every minute. The stigma and insults to credit and honour from Washington only increase the resolve of her people and their faith in the invincibility of the righteous cause. For this they are willing to pledge everything in sacrifice for justice upon the altar of their battle fires. To what martyred souls runs back this heritage of noble spirit only the historians of the future may attempt to answer. It is this

spirit which is the deadliest enemy that Germany has to reckon with to-day.

"But with the spirit and with the wealth that has staggered the world something yet remains, if an explanation of Britain's tremendous output of war munitions is to be given. Twenty-five years ago the machinery of England stamped the coinage of many nations and made the cannons for many others. She was the ordnance maker of the world. Then Germany loomed as her rival, and by means of Government bounties, cheaper labor and English free trade she finally put many an English firm out of business, and only in the manufacture of her great naval guns did England retain her old supremacy. But the foundations of the trade and the old factories in this business had not wholly disappeared when the war storm burst, and it was upon these almost forgotten foundations that British spirit and British wealth reared anew her old metal industries and transformed them into munition plants. This is not," as the writer says, "a fight between armies; it is a struggle between nations, and in England every man, woman and child is devoted to only one object, the winning of the war."

The writer calls attention to the fact that "this is not merely a struggle between the finance, the metal and the soldiers of two rival groups. It is also a struggle for economic existence in order that the fighting forces may be increased. Germany was the first of the belligerents to realize that war power might be increased by cutting out luxuries; but England has grasped the fact and she is prepared to go as far as Germany or even farther in denying herself anything whose consumption might delay the end of the war. The British people are organizing in clothing, food, drink, the discarding of unnecessary comforts, increase in the hours of labor and the mutual burdens of all forms of taxation. And the nation will be better for it after the war. As Lloyd George said, the nation has been in training. Whatever the war debt of the Empire is when the fight is over, it will be easily dealt with by people who have learned the lessons that the English people are learning and who will not forget the lessons;" yet the writer quoted says that "while the world is coming into a new civilization, the people in the United States appear to have little comprehension of the issues and the economic results that must inevitably flow therefrom."

The part that Canada played in the support of the Mother

Country during the war has been given elsewhere at length. India's share has also been given in some detail. The great self-governing Commonwealths of Australia, New Zealand and South Africa have played an equally fine part. The universal colonial participation in the war is evidence that the colonies believed in the justice of the British cause.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

The Australians and New Zealanders would not have travelled fourteen thousand miles, or the men from Southwest Africa crossed ten thousand miles over the sea to fight in Europe if they had not, like the men from Canada, been convinced that Britain was right. The colonials rushed to arms because the complete independence which they enjoyed within the British Empire was just as much threatened by Germany as the liberties of England, Ireland, Scotland or Wales.

Australia's population is less than that of New York City, yet 426,000 Australian soldiers enlisted, every one of them volunteers.

About 54,000 Australians were killed in action and 140,000 wounded.

The total war bill of Australia was one billion one hundred million dollars.

The five million inhabitants of Australia paid for and maintained five divisions in France during the last two years of the war, as well as one cavalry division in Egypt and Palestine. The personnel of the Australian navy exceeds nine thousand officers and men—the navy that early in the war hunted down and destroyed the famous German raider *Emden*.

The Australians have their own independent army organization—hospitals, medical service, aviation branch and training camps. Their corps in France commanded by a Melbourne business man, General Sir John Monash, greatly distinguished itself in various battles in France, particularly in the great drive of 1918. They lived up to the brilliant record made by their earliest comrades, the heroes of the Allies' ill-starred venture at Gallipoli in 1915. The bravery of the Australian soldier became proverbial. The German hated to go up against the Australian, the Highlander and the Canadian perhaps more than any other troops.

Australia intends seeing that her soldiers are well cared for

on their return and intends repatriating and re-establishing them in civil life at a cost of one hundred and fifty million dollars.

New Zealand, with a population of over a million, sent about one hundred thousand troops to battle. Together with the Australians the New Zealanders formed the famous "Anzac" corps at Gallipoli. The New Zealanders were fine fighters and as such greatly respected by the Germans.

THE BRITISH NAVY

Much has been said in this book on the work of the British navy because it was such a vital factor in the war. Yet new facts are continually coming to light which increase the admiration and wonder of everybody for the stupendous work achieved by the British Admiralty.

In August, 1914, the British navy had a tonnage of 2,500,000. and a personnel of 145,000 officers and men. When war ceased the navy, including the auxiliary fleet, had a tonnage of 8,000,000. The personnel of the navy, exclusive of that employed on mercantile service, patrol vessels and mine sweepers amounted to 500,000. In the auxiliary naval service which employed 50,000 men about 10,000 gave up their lives in the cause. In addition to all these 1,000,000 men were engaged exclusively in work for the navy.

From 1910 to 1914 Germany imported the following materials annually: Raw cotton, 405,000 tons; copper, 181,000 tons; sugar, 4,771,000 tons; wool, 190,000 tons; hides, 239,000 tons; meat, 1,919,000 tons; and coffee, 180,000 tons. When war started these imports, except for small driblets through neutral countries, practically ceased because of the British blockade. Never for a moment did the British strangle-hold on Germany relax and when the end came Germany was woefully short of raw materials for ordnance manufacturing.

Great Britain supplied fifty per cent of the coal for the railways and munition factories of France. She also loaned France 1,000,000 tons of shipping and Italy 500,000 tons. Sixty per cent of the American soldiers sent to Europe were carried in British vessels.

The British navy kept the highways of the seas open for British ships which carried 130,000,000 tons of food and other supplies for use of the Entente Allies and the United States.

It patrolled incessantly 140,000 square miles of the North Sea.

Steamed in one month (June, 1918), 8,000,000 miles; sunk, destroyed or captured 150 German submarines, about half the total strength of the under-sea force.

Raised its personnel from 145,000 to 500,000.

Armed and maintained 3,500 auxiliary patrol boats as against less than 20 when the war began.

Enabled food for 46,000,000 inhabitants of Great Britian and Ireland to be brought from overseas despite the furious U-boat campaign whose principal object was to starve them into submission.

Kept Britain's 8,000,000 soldiers and sailors well fed and in every field of action.

Made possible the uninterrupted supply of munitions, coal and food needed by the armies, navies and 75,000,000 inhabitants of France and Italy.

During the war the British navy transported by military sea transport the following:

Personnel effectives	23,388,000
Non effectives	8,336,000
Animals	2,264,000
British military stores	47,993,000 tons

During the war it lost 230 warships, big and little, and in addition 450 auxiliary ships such as mine sweepers, yet at the end the fleet was bigger and stronger than ever.

Of the allied forces fighting submarines in the Atlantic towards the end of the struggle eighty per cent were British, fourteen per cent were American and six per cent were French.

Of allied submarines hunting enemy submarines in the Atlantic, seventy-eight per cent were British, seventeen per cent French, and five per cent American.

Between the signing of the armistice and April 1st, 1919, British mine sweepers had destroyed no fewer than five thousand, five hundred moored mines, and no merchantmen sailing by the prescribed routes had been damaged by a moored mine. It is a splendid tribute to the British mercantile marine that no merchantman had ever failed to sail owing to lack of men, although there were men who had been torpedoed and mined as many as five times.

FAMOUS BRITISH STATESMEN

H. H. Asquith
Former Prime Minister

Earl of Derby
Ambassador to France

Sir Eric Geddes
First Lord of the Admiralty

Earl Grey
Former Foreign Secretary

Arthur J. Balfour
Foreign Secretary

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SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN HIGH SEAS FLEET

Actual photograph showing the greatest naval surrender in history—the German fleet arriving to surrender. *Below,* The commanders of the British and American fleets, Admirals Beatty and Rodman, the King of England and the Prince of Wales viewing the surrender.

BRITISH SUBMARINE OPERATIONS

The British Admiralty have not yet published all their submarine secrets nor are they likely to. During the war practically nothing was heard of British submarine operations, yet Britain began with 80 submarines, built 130 more and lost 50. Germany had no monopoly of the submarine. The 160 submersibles which Germany surrendered contained no secrets to the British. In fact, the plans of German submarines had sometimes been obtained and examined before one of the same type had been captured; indicating that Germany had no monopoly of secret service efficiency either.

It is not generally known that the submarine played a considerable part in British convoy work in the German submarine zone and exerted quite a moral effect. The immunity of convoys of ships coming from America may be accounted for by a combination of destroyer protection, smoke screens, aircraft observation, zig-zagging, careful planning, and other things—including submarines.

British submarines were largely used in patrol work in the North Sea and probably made mine-laying by German submarines more difficult.

Over twelve thousand British mines were laid from March to November, 1918, by one flotilla in the Helgoland Bight area. Night after night and day after day our mine-laying submarines entered the huge German mine fields off Helgoland and blocked the channels through which some German boats left and returned. These trap mines led to over one hundred German craft being caught the first six months of 1918.

Out of two hundred and three German U-boats lost during the war, one hundred and twenty were sunk with all on board, and fully half of the crews of the rest perished. Of fifty-nine British submarines lost, thirty-nine were destroyed by Germans, four were interned, seven blown up in the Baltic and nine sunk by accident or wrecked.

On September 6, 1918, the Admiralty made public the fact that one hundred and fifty German submarines had been disposed of and published the names and fate of their commanders. The list published did not contain the names of Austrian submarines, of which a number had also been destroyed.

Of the officers commanding the U-boats, one hundred and sixteen were dead, twenty-seven were prisoners of war, six were interned in neutral countries, and one escaped to Germany.

Altogether the allied and neutral countries lost 21,404,913 tons of shipping during the war, of which all but 7,157,088 tons were replaced. As 3,795,000 tons of enemy shipping was seized, the allied and neutral nations had only 3,362,088 less tons in operation at the end of the war than in August, 1914.

THE PARAVANE

This invention of Lieutenant Burney, son of Admiral Sir Cecil Burney, Commander-in-Chief at Rosyth, is supposed to have saved Great Britain $40,000,000 worth of ships. The Paravane is a sort of kite on the end of a hawser, suspended from each side of a ship. As the ship moves the pull on the kite tightens, the hawsers stand out straight on either side and sweep up any mines that may be met with.

New mine fields were often discovered by means of this device, and cruisers caught in such mine fields have successfully cut their way through them. Different types were developed, one of which was used with success against U-boats.

For the invention of the Paravane, of which thousands were manufactured, Lieutenant Burney was made acting commander, awarded the C. M. G., and given a sum of money, the amount of which was not made public.

THE FERRY TO FRANCE

One of the most jealously guarded secrets of the war was the construction of the terminal of Richborough on the south coast of England. On a site of 2,200 acres of waste land near Sandwich was built a large railway terminal, storage yards and plant for the construction of steel barges. Twenty thousand officers and men were employed at this terminal. There three steel ferries were constructed, each 363 feet long, 61 feet wide and drawing 10 feet of water. They had a speed of twelve knots and a displacement of 3,655 tons. Each ferry was provided with four tracks running the length of the ship and could carry fifty-four ten-ton trucks. The trains were run directly on to the ferries at Richborough, which was accommodated with movable ferry slips to rise and

fall with the tides. At the terminal in France the trains were run off and taken direct to their destination. Tanks, artillery and locomotives were also carried over on these ferries to Calais and Dunkirk.

The service began in February, 1917, and in the interval to the end of the war 1,285,000 tons, of which 785,000 consisted of guns and ammunition, were transported to France.

Two hundred and thirty-two steel barges were also built at Richborough and were used to haul material through the canal systems in France, right to the army front without transshipment. Fifty tugs were used in this work.

A similar terminal was established opposite Southampton with a ferry service to Dieppe. So well was the Richborough location concealed, that it was never subjected to bombardment by airplane or Zeppelin.

BRITISH SECRET SERVICE

Like the British navy the British Secret Service worked in silence. England, of course, was overrun with German spies, many of them from neutral countries. As they nearly all attempted to forward their letters by post, their efforts were detected by the censor. The British Secret Service did not necessarily arrest spies at once, but allowed them to "carry on," reserving the right to open the correspondence both ways and make such alterations as would benefit the Allies. Only eight German spies were executed in England during the war, but many are undergoing penal servitude.

So well did the British Intelligence system work that the withdrawal from Gallipoli, the construction of tanks, the preparations for the offensive at Cambrai, and the final great counter-offensive were perfectly concealed from the enemy though they were all known to numbers of people in Britain. The efforts of the six thousand persons employed in the department were so silent and unobtrusive that its very existence was almost unknown to the general public.

Through the efforts of this department enemy remittances of $350,000,000 were stopped and the enemy's overseas communication, in so far as they were vulnerable, completely destroyed. In controlling speculative transactions in raw materials and prices, vast sums of money estimated at approximately $1,000,000,000 were saved the country through the efforts of this service.

TANKS

Ludendorff, chief of the German Staff, intimated after the war that the Allies won the war because of their tanks and that Germany, on account of lack of raw materials, had been unable to build them in quantity. This was an indirect tribute to the value of the British navy.

The tank was a purely British invention and on its very first unheralded appearance during the Somme offensive, proved to be a success in breaking through the German defensive system and inspiring wholesome fear in the heart of the enemy.

The first British tank weighed about twenty-five tons and carried a crew of eight to ten men. In long trips over difficult country the large tanks broke down through engine trouble, presented a large mark for anti-tank guns, were slow and cumbersome. Because of their size the number of tanks in any offensive was strictly limited. Furthermore, experience showed that the main object of tanks was to carry guns, ammunition and crews, and not to crush enemy defences.

Accordingly a smaller tank was developed capable of carrying two men and a machine gun or small cannon. The first small tanks to take the field were the British Whippets, which traveled up to fifteen miles an hour, were manœuvred easily, could co-ordinate perfectly with infantry and proved a magnificent success from the start. During the Foch counter-offensives the French brought out their counterpart of the Whippet in the baby Renault tank, which also proved a success from the start. The Renault tank consisted of an armoured body thirteen feet in length, six and a half feet in height and three feet in width, equipped with a caterpillar tread and power plant. The armoured plate is from one-fifth to three-fifths of an inch thick of special chrome steel, capable of withstanding small arm ammunition and the burst of small shells.

CIVILIAN WORK

To give any adequate conception of what the women and men engaged in war work in England accomplished would take several chapters. Every one who saw anything of the work done was filled with admiration and wonder at the tremendous achievements of British women, 1,200,000 of whom replaced men.

113,000 of these were employed in agriculture. The British Government dispassionately ranked their work with that of the men in the army. Lloyd George himself believed that if it had not been for the way in which women had come forward and carried on the work of the men,—who had to be taken out of vital industries and sent to France to fight in the last great offensives,—Great Britain and the Allies would probably have not been able to withstand the terrific series of attacks which the enemy launched in the spring of 1918 in the hope of dividing the French and British armies.

During the war British factories turned out 60,000,000 boots and supplied 2,000,000 respirators to the Italian army.

Over 1,500,000 men in the British Isles were engaged on munition work; 260,000 in industrial work for the Allies; 1,000,000 for the Admiralty, and 375,000 digging coal.

FINANCIAL BURDEN

During the war Great Britain not only raised a huge army of over five million, equivalent to the continental size, kept the seas clear of the enemy, developed the largest and most efficient air force and became the greatest manufacturer of ordnance and munitions in the world, but she carried the heaviest financial burden.

Britain made vast sacrifices of her accumulated wealth in helping to win victory for the Allies.

During the latter period the war cost Britain $35,000,000 per day, which was the pre-war income of the nation. She did not spare herself as to costs in the war, but if the same expenditures had occurred in the United States taking the proportion of income that country would have spent about $100,000,000 a day, according to Mr. Bonar Law.

During the war the annual national income of Great Britain increased from $2,000,000,000 to $7,000,000,000. Three-quarters of the huge national expenditure was met by loan, and one-quarter by ordinary revenue, taxation and the like.

These resources would have been sufficient to cover the whole obligation incurred by the United Kingdom if the Allies had been financially self-supporting. But they were not and had to be loaned huge sums to enable them to carry on the war.

To the signing of the armistice Britain had loaned her Allies the following sums:

Russia	$2,840,000,000
France	2,125,000,000
Italy	1,725,000,000
Smaller Allies	635,000,000
Total	$7,325,000,000

Her own dominions were also loaned $218,500,000.

As Mr. Bonar Law stated: "All through the war down to the present time it had been nearly true to say that we have met our own war requirements on land and sea by our own daily efforts without mortgaging the future or dissipating the past. The menace to our future wealth and prosperity has lain in the necessity of finding resources for our Allies outside our own borders, over and above the requirements of our own navy and expeditions and land forces."

Great Britain incurred a great loss of accumulated capital in the sale of foreign securities such as American railway bonds. She also incurred a heavy loss in the millions of tonnage of mercantile marine lost.

The total national debt of Britain at the end of the financial year, 1918, assuming that only one-half of the amounts lent to the Allies and the Dominions was repaid, would amount to $34,000,000,000. Against this will be set such compensation as may be received from Germany for reparation.

But the burden of debt will be enormous, and the service of the debt, interest and sinking-fund, the payments in the way of pensions and other sequels of the war, will produce budget figures which would have staggered the imagination of former Chancellors of the Exchequer. Provided capital and labour worked together harmoniously with the great object of increasing national production, Mr. Bonar Law believed that Britain would rapidly repair her losses and advance to new wealth and power.

AIR FORCES

The growth of the British Air Service was phenomenal. Beginning in 1914 the British had altogether just 130 aircraft of all types. In the week of August 8th to August 15th, 1918, the British

air forces brought down 339 German machines and dropped 320 tons of bombs on enemy batteries and ammunition dumps.

British air squadrons took the lead on the French front, the Italian front, the Balkan front, in Persia, Palestine and Mesopotamia. Other facts will be found in the chapter entitled "With the Canadian Airmen."

THE BRITISH ARMY

The brilliant part played by Britain's "contemptible little army" at the most critical period of the war undoubtedly was a great factor in saving France from a speedy defeat. It must be remembered that at the beginning the French army was not what it developed into later on. Some of the divisions from the south of France had not the fighting spirit or the efficiency of the divisions recruited near the borders of Germany where legends of invasion had never been forgotten. There was also inefficiency and treachery through German agents who had worked up to high posts in the French army. And it was one of Joffre's tasks to get rid of these, a task which he accomplished with skill and speed. The army of one hundred thousand thoroughly trained and equipped British regulars was a wonderful addition to the French army at the crucial moment, and played a magnificent part in breaking down the German war machine.

At the end of the first year two million volunteers had joined the colours. Towards the close of May, 1916, King George publicly announced that more than five million volunteers had entered the army and the navy.

In August, 1918, Lloyd George said that the British Empire had raised for the army and the navy a total of more than 8,500,000 men. Of this grand total India had contributed 1,500,000; the British Dominions 1,000,000; and Great Britain itself 6,255,000.

At the end of the war every third male in the British Isles, including boy babies in arms and men of ninety, was engaged in some war service.

It must never be forgotten that British forces fought not only in France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Siberia and the Balkans, but in Kiaochow, New Guinea, Samoa, Mesopotamia, Egypt, the Sudan, Cameroons, Togoland, East Africa, Southwest Africa, Aden, Persia and Afghanistan. At no time were more than 1,750,000

British troops actually engaged on the French front and on lines of communication. In all British soldiers suffered some 3,000,000 casualties, while about 900,000 suffered death.

Unmoved by criticism, by sneers and worse from some who considered themselves masters of military strategy, Great Britain kept armies in Salonika, Mesopotamia and Palestine. The unconditional surrender of Bulgaria, with its disastrous consequences to the Central Powers, proved the worth of that "Divine Folly."

THE HEAVIEST FIGHTING FALLS ON THE BRITISH

The work of the British troops in the last one hundred days of the war can be no better expressed than in the tribute paid to them by Sir Douglas Haig in his official despatch:

"In three months of epic fighting the British armies in France have brought to a sudden and dramatic end the great wearing-out battle of the last four years.

"In our admiration for this outstanding achievement the long years of patient and heroic struggle by which the strength and spirit of the enemy were gradually broken down cannot be forgotten. The strain of those years was never-ceasing, the demands they made upon the best of the empire's manhood are now known. Yet throughout all those years, and amid the hopes and disappointments they brought with them, the confidence of our troops in final victory never wavered. Their courage and resolution rose superior to every test, their cheerfulness never failing, however terrible the conditions in which they lived and fought. By the long road they trod with so much faith and with such devoted and self-sacrificing bravery we have arrived at victory, and to-day they have their reward.

"The work begun and persevered in so steadfastly by those brave men has been completed during the present year with a thoroughness to which the event bears witness, and with a gallantry which will live for all time in the history of our country. The annals of war hold record of no more wonderful recovery than that which, three months after the tremendous blows showered upon them on the Somme and on the Lys, saw the undefeated British armies advancing from victory to victory, driving their erstwhile triumphant enemy back to and far beyond the line from which he started, and finally forcing him to acknowledge unconditional defeat.

"The great series of victories won by the British forces between August 8th and November 11th is the outstanding feature of the events described in this dispatch. At Amiens and Bapaume, in the breaking of the Drocourt-Quéant and Hindenburg systems, before Le Cateau and on the Selle, in Flanders and on the Sambre, the enemy was again and again brought to battle and defeated.

"In the decisive contests of this period, the strongest and most vital parts of the enemy's front were attacked by the British, his lateral communications were cut and his best divisions fought to a standstill. On the different battlefronts 187,000 prisoners and 2,850 guns were captured by us, bringing the total of our prisoners for the present year to over 201,000. Immense numbers of machine guns and trench mortars were taken also, the figures of those actually counted exceeding 29,000 machine guns and some 3,000 trench mortars. These results were achieved by fifty-nine fighting British divisions, which in the course of three months of battle engaged and defeated ninety-nine separate German divisions.

"This record furnishes the proof of the skill of our commanders and their staffs, as well as of the fine fighting qualities of the British regimental officer and soldier. It is a proof also of the overwhelmingly decisive part played by the British armies on the western front in bringing the enemy to his final defeat."

CHAPTER XXXIII

Germany Pleads for Peace by Negotiation

Everywhere on the western front the German armies were being driven back, with heavy losses of men and material, by the allied armies. This, together with the collapse of Bulgaria, had made it necessary for Germany to conclude some kind of a peace by negotiation before irretrievable disaster met the armies of the Central Powers. Accordingly Prince Maximilian of Baden, who had succeeded von Hertling as Imperial Chancellor, on September 30th proceeded, with the co-operation of Turkey and Austria-Hungary, to launch a new peace drive, using the speech made by President Wilson in New York on September 27th as the basis of peace negotiations. The new Chancellor was willing to make greater concessions than had ever been offered before by Germany.

The note sent by Germany through the Swiss Government to President Wilson stated that the programme set forth by the President to Congress on January 8th and in his speech of September 27th would be accepted as a basis for peace negotiations. The German Government asked that the President acquaint all the belligerents with this request, invite them to send plenipotentiaries for the purpose of opening negotiations, and that an armistice on land, sea, and in the air be immediately concluded.

President Wilson, in replying, stated that he could not suggest an armistice as long as German armies were in allied territory, and asked whether the Imperial Chancellor was speaking merely for the constituted authorities of the German Empire, who had so far conducted the war. This unexpected reply caused much discussion, being commented on most favorably in Great Britain and regarded as a shrewd move everywhere.

The Germans' first reply appeared to accept the President's proposition to evacuate invaded territory, and Berlin, believing the note to be an unselfish peace offer, went wild with excitement at the prospect of peace.

Before the President made his second reply fresh devastations

in France and new submarine atrocities occurred, particularly that in which a British mail steamer was torpedoed off Ireland with the loss of hundreds of lives, including more than one hundred women and children.

President Wilson's second note stated the allied position in no equivocal terms. He said that at the very moment Germany sought peace her retreating armies were wantonly destroying French towns while her submarines were killing innocent citizens, both of which procedures have always been regarded as a direct violation of the rules and practises of civilized warfare; that while acts of spoliation, inhumanity and desolation were being continued, the nations associated against Germany could not be expected to agree to a cessation of arms and would recall to the attention of the German Government a paragraph in an address delivered by him on July 4, 1918, which read:

> The destruction of every arbitrary power everywhere that can separately, secretly and of its single choice disturb the peace of the world; or if it cannot be presently destroyed, at least its reduction to virtual impotency.

The President went on to say that the power which had hitherto controlled the German nation was of the sort there described and that it was within the choice of the German nation to alter it, adding that the words just quoted would constitute a condition precedent to peace.

> The President feels bound to say that the whole process of peace will, in his judgment, depend upon the definiteness and the satisfactory character of the guarantees which can be given in this fundamental matter. It is indispensable that the governments associated against Germany should know beyond a peradventure with whom they are dealing.

This note met with universal approval by the allied nations, being interpreted as a demand that the Hohenzollerns get out, together with the German autocracy responsible for the war. In Germany the note had the effect of a cold douche ending for the time all hope of a peace by negotiation.

FOCH REPLIES BY RENEWED BLOWS

The effect of the Peace Drive had no effect upon the allied armies except to convince them that Germany had lost every vestige of hope of a victory by arms.

Under the direction of Foch, the allied commander-in-chief, the military battering ram drove new breaches in the German front, with, if possible, renewed power and energy.

LE CATEAU

The result of the British successes showed itself immediately in the withdrawal of the enemy from the Lys front where Sir W. Birdwood, with his reorganized Fifth Army, kept pressing the retiring Germans.

The second and final phase of the British offensive now opened, in which the Fourth and Third armies and the right of the First Army moved forward with their left flank on the canal which runs from Cambrai to Mons and their right covered by the French First Army. This advance, by the capture of Maubeuge and the disrupting of the German main lateral system of communications, forced the enemy to fall back upon the line of the Meuse.

During that period the fighting which took place as a result of the development and exploitation of the Hindenburg line victory fell into three stages. These stages depended chiefly upon the depth of the advances made and the difficulties of re-establishing communications.

On October 8th the Third and Fourth British armies attacked over a seventeen-mile front from Sequehart to the south of Cambrai, while French troops continued the line of attack southeast to St. Quentin. South of this again French and American troops attacked east of the Meuse and in Champagne making important progress.

The enemy line along the British front was quickly penetrated to the depth of three and four miles and as a result the enemy's resistance gave way and he retired steadily towards Le Cateau. Thousands of prisoners and many guns were taken. The following night the Canadian Corps captured Ramillies and entered Cambrai at the same time British troops entered it from the south. Next day the advance continued, the British cavalry doing great work harrying the enemy's retirement and preventing him from destroying railways. A dashing charge by the Canadian Fort Garry Horse on Cattigny Wood where strong enemy resistance developed enabled the infantry to press forward while Dragoon Guards and Canadian cavalry captured several villages. Meanwhile to our right the First French Army advanced to the Oise-Sambre Canal.

As the Selle River was approached the enemy resistance stiffened, bringing to an end the first stage of the advance.

In this advance twenty British infantry, one American infantry and two British cavalry divisions routed twenty-four German divisions, captured 12,000 prisoners and 250 guns and obtained possession of the railway running from St. Quentin to Cambrai.

By October 13th our armies had reached the Selle River at all points south of Haspres and had established bridgeheads. Meanwhile, on October 7th, the enemy had withdrawn south of Lens and by October 13th had reached the suburbs of Douai.

BATTLE OF THE SELLE RIVER

The lines of communication having sufficiently improved the British commenced to force the Selle River with the object of attaining the general line of the Sambre and Oise Canal at the west edge of the Forest of Mormal-Valenciennes.

On October 17th the Fourth British Army attacked on a front of ten miles from Le Cateau southward, the French First Army attacking in conjunction with us west of the Sambre and Oise Canal. The assault was delivered by five British and two American divisions. The enemy, well supported by artillery, fought obstinately, but by the evening of October 19th, after much severe fighting, had been driven across the Sambre and Oise Canal at practically all points south of Catillon. On October 20th nine British divisions of the Third and First armies attacked the line of the Selle River north of Le Cateau. The enemy, protected by new wire entanglements, bitterly contested our advance, but, supported by tanks, our infantry, after hard fighting, gained their objectives on the high ground east of the Selle River. Other troops of the First Army progressed on both sides of the Scheldt Canal and occupied Denain.

The capture of the Selle position was followed, on October 23d, by a large operation involving an assault by fifteen British divisions on a fifteen-mile front from Mazinghien to Maison Bleue. On the following day three more British divisions continued the attack for another five miles north to the Scheldt. The fighting was severe, but by the evening of October 24th our troops were within a mile of Le Quesnoy and three days later the line was established north and east of the Le Quesnoy-Valenciennes railway.

In this battle twenty-four British and two American divisions had beaten thirty-one German divisions and captured 20,000 prisoners and 475 guns.

THE ENEMY'S POSITION AT THE END OF OCTOBER

The rapid succession of heavy blows dealt by the British forces had had a cumulative effect, both moral and material, upon the German armies. His reserves had become exhausted and his enormous losses of guns, ammunition and material had increased with each successive attack. Though resistance was made to our initial assaults the German infantry and machine gunners were no longer reliable. Cases were reported of their retirement without fighting before our artillery barrage.

The desperate condition of her Austrian ally, which the allied successes rendered impossible to alleviate, and the capitulation of her other allies—Bulgaria and Turkey—made Germany's ultimate defeat a certainty, though it was possible that the struggle might be protracted. The British armies were now, however, in a position to prevent this by a direct attack upon a vital centre which would anticipate the enemy's withdrawal and force an immediate conclusion.

BATTLE OF THE SAMBRE

On November 1st and 2d three British divisions and the Fourth Canadian division attacked on a six-mile front and, after heavy fighting, the British established themselves in their objectives on the high ground across the Rhonelle River while the Canadians captured Valenciennes.

The enemy then began withdrawing his line from threatened positions but before this could be successfully accomplished an attack was made along a thirty-mile front from the Sambre to Valenciennes. The country attacked was most difficult; the river had to be crossed and streams, running parallel to the line of advance, and woods presented formidable obstacles. Nevertheless the British were now perfectly satisfied that they had the enemy on the run and surmounting all obstacles advanced to a depth of five miles on the first day. Severe fighting took place but the British were everywhere victorious, capturing numerous towns, including Le Quesnoy by the New Zealand division. During these operations,

twenty-two British divisions utterly defeated thirty-two German divisions, capturing 19,000 more prisoners and 450 guns.

On the British right the French First Army, continuing the line of attack, kept pace with us, capturing 5,000 prisoners and a number of guns.

THE RETURN TO MONS

As a result of this great victory the enemy's resistance was definitely broken and on the night of November 4th his troops began to fall back all along the battle front.

Throughout the following days amid continuous rain, which imposed great hardships on our troops, infantry and cavalry pressed forward with scarcely a check, keeping in close touch with the rapidly retreating Germans.

The roads, packed with enemy troops and transport, made great targets for our airmen, who took full advantage of every opportunity, despite the unfavourable weather. Thirty guns, which aerial bombs and machine-gun fire alone had forced the enemy to abandon, were taken by one battalion.

North of the Mons-Conde Canal numerous explosions behind the German lines indicated the enemy withdrawal in that area and on the following morning corps of the First and Fifth armies advanced across the Scheldt on a considerable front.

By November 9th the enemy was in general retreat along the whole British front. The fortress of Maubeuge was entered by the Guards division and Sixty-second division while the Canadians were approaching Mons.

Next day all of the five British armies advanced, preceded by cavalry and cyclists. Only in front of Mons was any substantial opposition met with and there the Canadians, advancing from the south and west and working around it to the north, encountered an organized and tenacious machine-gun resistance. Further north the cavalry had reached Ath, and the line was far to the east of Tournai. Renaix had also been captured and British troops were approaching Grammont.

In the morning of November 11th the Third Canadian division captured Mons, the whole of the defending force being killed or taken prisoners.

At 11 A. M. on November 11th, in accordance with instructions

received from the commander-in-chief of the allied armies, hostilities were suspended.

THE MILITARY SITUATION ON THE BRITISH FRONT ON NOVEMBER 11TH

Since November 1st British troops had broken the enemy's resistance beyond possibility of recovery and had forced on him a disorderly retreat along the whole front of the British armies. Thereafter the enemy was capable neither of accepting nor refusing battle. The utter confusion of his troops, the state of his railways congested with abandoned trains, the capture of huge quantities of rolling stock and material all showed that our attacks had been decisive. It had been followed on the north by the evacuation of the Tournai salient, and to the south, where the French forces had pushed forward in conjunction with us, by a rapid and costly withdrawal to the line of the Meuse.

The strategic plan of the Allies had been realized with a completeness rarely seen in war. When the armistice was signed by the enemy his defensive powers had already been definitely destroyed. A continuance of hostilities could only have meant disaster to the German armies and the armed invasion of Germany.

There is little doubt that the magnificent accomplishment of the British was the most glorious achievement in the whole history of the British army. The overcoming of the Somme defences in August was a superb feat; the breaking of the Hindenburg line, with weakened forces, was almost superhuman. It is possible that in future years the miracle by which fifty-nine British divisions inflicted such crushing defeat on ninety-nine German divisions, will be found due to a considerable extent in swift tanks which played such a vital part in affording us a tactical superiority. So great was the effect produced on the Germans by British tanks that in more than one instance, when real tanks were not available, results were obtained by the use of dummy canvas tanks. It was quite evident that the superior morale of the British was a vital factor and proved for all time that the manhood of a free empire was more than a match for the armies of a military autocracy.

The dramatic change which occurred in the military situation was undoubtedly due to the genius of Marshal Foch, whose strategic conception was carried out with such wonderful loyalty and precision by all the allied armies. By it the whole cam-

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VICTORIOUS CANADIANS WITH THE PRESIDENT OF FRANCE

M. Poincairé walking through the streets of Valenciennes, which was captured by Canadians on November 10, 1918, accompanied by some of the victors. On the following day our irresistible army entered Mons.

LIBERATORS OF DENAIN

Canadians marching in review past the Prince of Wales and General Sir Arthur Currie.

VICTORIOUS ENTRY OF THE CANADIAN ARMY INTO MONS

The last great exploit of the Canadian troops before the signing of the armistice was the bitterly contested struggle for this historic city. This photograph shows the Canadian Field Artillery passing through the square on November 11, 1918.

paign was revolutionized. The great French strategist, by raining a series of blows timed to achieve the maximum result, broke down the enemy front and the enemy morale at the same time. The decisive effort of the whole campaign was probably the battle of Cambrai, from September 27th to October 8th, in which the British First, Third and Fourth armies broke through the vast defences of the Hindenburg system. It was that victory that broke General Ludendorff's nerve and was the cause of the first appeal to President Wilson for an armistice.

MUTINY IN THE GERMAN NAVY

As early as the spring of 1915 there were minor mutinies on different German warships and on September 7, 1915, the Kaiser addressed a "strictly secret" special order to the officers of the Imperial navy exhorting them to be less severe in maintaining discipline among the men. Discontent increased, however, and in March, 1916, a mutiny occurred on one battleship and a few weeks later a more serious affair as a result of which thirty of the ringleaders were condemned to death.

In the spring a more serious mutiny occurred in the High Seas Fleet in which the captain of one vessel was thrown overboard and drowned and other officers wounded. One hundred and ninety men were executed for taking part in this mutiny.

The final successful mutiny occurred on October 31, 1918, when the Admiral commanding the High Seas Fleet gave the signal to put to sea. One captain made a patriotic speech to his sailors ending with a statement to the effect that they would fight to the last shot and then go down with colours flying. The sailors interpreting this as a last desperate attempt to fight the British navy and be made a sacrifice of, promptly extinguished the fires and flooded the holds with water. The mutineers immediately communicated with the next vessel and the crew of the Helgoland also broke into open mutiny.

Torpedo boats were then despatched by the Admiral, the mutineers, 1,500 in number, surrendered and were taken to Wilhelmshaven to await their trial.

On the same day smaller troubles on other ships showed the impossibility of the High Seas Fleet putting to sea. Within twenty-four hours most of the crews and the whole of the marine

garrison of Wilhelmshaven were in open revolt! The men at Kiel followed suit and by November 2d Cuxhaven, Brunsbuttel, Emden and Lübeck were in the hands of the mutineers. The German fleet had virtually ceased to exist.

In Berlin it was not considered wise to send soldiers against the mutineers and the latter seizing their opportunity sent representatives to Berlin, Munich and other cities to stir up the Socialists and revolutionary centres.

The fact has been definitely established that the naval mutiny resulted in the contagion spreading to the civilians and from them to the army at the front.

REVOLUTION IN BERLIN

For months before the naval mutiny, preparations had been secretly made by Independent Socialists and Spartacus communists for an armed uprising in Berlin and other centres. The Army General Staff, knowing of the secret preparations for revolt, had select bodies of soldiers, equipped with light and heavy artillery, machine guns, gas bombs, hand grenades, gas masks and other paraphernalia, ready for action in Berlin, Spandau and elsewhere.

Upon arrival of the sailors' emissaries the Independent Socialists fixed November 11th as the date of a general strike under the disguise of which they would begin a revolution. The Scheidemann Socialists, formerly docile government supporters, suddenly went over and joined forces with the Independent Socialists. Almost immediately they secured the support of the Berlin garrison and particularly of the special corps sent in to put down the uprising, thus assuring the success of the revolution. Prince Max of Baden, the German Chancellor, believing that none but a purely Socialist Government could avert war, resigned his post and Scheidemann, not certain of the results of the revolution, thrust his colleague Ebert into the supreme position.

CHAPTER XXXIV

The Fall of Kings and Empires

Not knowing anything of what was occurring in Germany, or of the conditions either physical or mental through which the German nation was passing, the end of the war came with startling suddenness to the whole world. Little was known of the strike of the sailors of the High Sea Fleet; nothing was known of the revolution in Berlin or of its spread to the army. The fate of Bulgaria, Turkey and Austria-Hungary had made the end appear inevitable, but that it would come with such dramatic force was wholly unexpected.

When the Germans by wireless signified their desire for an armistice the German representatives were directed to proceed, on November 5th, to Chimoy, the spot designated, and cross the line at a certain hour. At 3 P. M. the French had orders to cease fire along the front near which the envoys were to cross and, late in the evening, the seven automobiles carrying the party passed through to the Forest of Compiegne where two trains stood on a siding, one used by Marshal Foch and the other for the use of the Germans.

There they were received by the allied commander-in-chief and given the dictated terms of surrender. There were no real negotiations. The Germans discussed the clauses for two days during which they were handed Paris newspapers announcing the flight of the Kaiser. The plenipotentiaries protested to the last against the armistice but they signed it and on November 11th at 11 o'clock in the morning the great war came to an end.

The International Armistice Commission began its sittings on November 12th at Spa, Belgium, in the grand salon of the Hotel Britannique. Before each sitting at 10 A. M. the German delegates arrived and stood in their places at a large table. The allied delegates then arrived and each bowed to the man opposite him before sitting down. There were no smiles, no pleasantries and everything was done with grim precision.

The terms of the armistice were the most severe ever imposed

upon a first-class power and had at least two great primary objects. The first was to make it impossible for Germany to ever begin another war of aggression; the second was to make the German nation realize that though it had narrowly escaped invasion, it still had to pay the price of war and make what reparation was possible to the nations which it had planned to destroy.

The terms of the German armistice were as follows:

THE GERMAN ARMISTICE

I. Military clauses on Western front:

1. Cessation of operations by land and in the air six hours after the signature of the armistice.

2. Immediate evacuation of invaded countries: Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg, so ordered as to be completed within fourteen days from the signature of the armistice. German troops which have not left the above mentioned territories within the period fixed will become prisoners of war. Occupation by the Allied and United States forces jointly will keep pace with evacuation in these areas. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated in accordance with a note annexed to the stated terms.

3. Repatriation beginning at once and to be completed within fifteen days of all inhabitants of the countries above mentioned, including hostages and persons under trial or convicted.

4. Surrender in good condition by the German armies of the following equipment: Five thousand guns (two thousand five hundred heavy, two thousand five hundred field), twenty-five thousand machine guns, three thousand minenwerfers, seventeen hundred airplanes. The above to be delivered in situ to the Allies and the United States troops in accordance with the detailed conditions laid down in the annexed note.

5. Evacuation by the German armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. These countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be administered by the local troops of occupation under the control of the Allied and United States armies of occupation. The occupation of these territories will be carried out by Allied and United States garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine, Mayence, Coblenz, Cologne, together with bridgeheads at these points in thirty kilometer radius on the right bank

and by garrisons similarly holding the strategic points of the regions.

A neutral zone shall be reserved on the right of the Rhine between the stream and a line drawn parallel to it forty kilometers (twenty-six miles) to the east from the frontier of Holland to the parallel of Gernsheim and as far as practicable a distance of thirty kilometers (twenty miles) from the east of stream from this parallel upon Swiss frontier. Evacuation by the enemy of the Rhine lands shall be so ordered as to be completed within a further period of sixteen days, in all—thirty-one days after the signature of the armistice. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated according to the note annexed.

6. In all territory evacuated by the enemy there shall be no evacuation of inhabitants; no damage or harm shall be done to the persons or property of the inhabitants. No destruction of any kind to be committed. Military establishments of all kinds shall be delivered as well as military stores of food, munitions, equipment not removed during the periods fixed for evacuation. Stores of food of all kinds for the civil population, cattle, etc., shall be left in situ. Industrial establishments shall not be impaired in any way and their personnel shall not be moved. Roads and means of communication of every kind, railroad, waterways, main roads, bridges, telegraphs, telephones, shall be in no manner impaired. No person shall be prosecuted for offenses of participation in war measures prior to the signing of the armistice.

7. All civil and military personnel at present employed on them shall remain. Five thousand locomotives, one hundred fifty thousand wagons and five thousand motor lorries in good working order with all necessary spare parts and fittings shall be delivered to the associated Powers within the period fixed for the evacuation of Belgium and Luxemburg. The railways of Alsace-Lorraine shall be handed over within thirty-six days, together with all pre-war personnel and material. Further material necessary for the working of railways in the country on the left bank of the Rhine shall be left in situ. All stores of coal and material for the upkeep of permanent ways, signals and repair shops left entire in situ and kept in an efficient state by Germany during the whole period of armistice. All barges taken from the Allies shall be restored to them. All civil and military personnel at present employed on

such means of communication and transporting including waterways shall remain. A note appended regulates the details of these measures.

8. The German command shall be responsible for revealing within forty-eight hours all mines or delay acting fuses disposed on territory evacuated by the German troops and shall assist in their discovery and destruction. The German command shall also reveal all destructive measures that may have been taken (such as poisoning or polluting of springs, wells, etc.) under penalty of reprisals.

9. The right of requisition shall be exercised by the Allies and the United States armies in all occupied territory, "subject to regulation of accounts with those whom it may concern." The upkeep of the troops of occupation in the Rhine land (excluding Alsace-Lorraine) shall be charged to the German Government.

10. An immediate repatriation without reciprocity according to detailed conditions which shall be fixed, of all Allied and United States prisoners of war. The Allied Powers and the United States shall be able to dispose of these prisoners as they wish. This condition annuls the previous conventions on the subject of the exchange of prisoners of war, including the one of July, 1918, in course of ratification. However, the repatriation of German prisoners of war interned in Holland and in Switzerland shall continue as before. The repatriation of German prisoners of war shall be regulated at the conclusion of the preliminaries of peace."

11. Sick and wounded, who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by German personnel who will be left on the spot with the medical material required.

II. Disposition relative to the eastern frontiers of Germany:

12. All German troops at present in any territory which before the war belonged to Rumania, Turkey or Austria-Hungary shall immediately withdraw within the frontiers of Germany as they existed on August 1, 1914. German troops now in Russian territory shall withdraw within the frontiers of Germany, as soon as the Allies, taking into account the internal situation of those territories, shall decide that the time for this has come.

13. Evacuation by German troops to begin at once and all German instructors, prisoners and civilian as well as military agents,

now on the territory of Russia (as defined before 1914) to be recalled.

14. German troops to cease at once all requisitions and seizures and any other undertakings with a view to obtaining supplies intended for Germany in Rumania and Russia (as defined on August 1, 1914).

15. Renunciation of the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk and of the supplementary treaties.

16. The Allies shall have free access to the territories evacuated by the Germans on their eastern frontier either through Danzig or by the Vistula in order to convey supplies to the populations of those territories and for the purpose of maintaining order.

III. Clause concerning East Africa:

17. Evacuation by all German forces operating in East Africa within a period to be fixed by the Allies.

IV. General clauses:

18. Repatriation, without reciprocity, within maximum period of one month, in accordance with detailed conditions hereafter to be fixed, of all civilians interned or deported who may be citizens of other allied or associated states than those mentioned in clause three, paragraph nineteen.

19. The following financial conditions are required: Reparation for damage done. While such armistice lasts no public securities shall be removed by the enemy which can serve as a pledge to the Allies for the recovery or repatriation of the cash deposit, in the National Bank of Belgium, and in general immediate return of all documents, specie, stocks, shares, paper money together with plant for the issue thereof, touching public or private interests in the invaded countries. Restitution of the Russian and Rumanian gold yielded to Germany or taken by that Power. This gold to be delivered in trust to the Allies until the signature of peace.

V. Naval conditions:

20. Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all German ships. Notification to be given to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mer-

chant marines of the allied and associate Powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

21. All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of war of the allied and associated Powers in German hands to be returned without reciprocity.

22. Surrender to the Allies and the United States of America all German submarines now existing (including all submarine cruisers and mine laying submarines), with their complete armament and equipment, in ports which will be specified by the Allies and the United States of America. Those which cannot take the sea shall be disarmed of the material and personnel and shall remain under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. All the conditions of the article shall be carried into effect within fourteen days. Submarines ready for sea shall be prepared to leave German ports immediately upon orders by wireless, and the remainder at the earliest possible moment.

23. The following German surface warships which shall be designated by the Allies and the United States of America shall forthwith be disarmed and thereafter interned in neutral ports, to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America and placed under the surveillance of the Allies and the United States of America, only caretakers being left on board, namely:

Six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers, including two mine layers, fifty destroyers of the most modern type. All other surface warships (including river craft) are to be concentrated in naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, and are to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States of America. All vessels of the auxiliary fleet (trawlers, motor vessels, etc.), are to be disarmed. Vessels designated for internment, shall be ready to leave German ports within seven days upon directions by wireless, and the military armament of all vessels of the auxiliary fleet shall be put on shore.

24. The Allies and the United States of America shall have the right to sweep all mine fields and obstructions laid by Germany outside German territorial waters, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

25. Freedom of access to and from the Baltic to be given to the naval and mercantile marine of the allied and associated Powers.

To secure this Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy all German forts, fortifications, batteries and defense works of all kinds in all the entrances from the Cattegat into the Baltic, and to sweep up all mines and obstructions within and without German territorial waters without any question of neutrality being raised, and the positions of all such mines and obstructions are to be indicated.

26. The existing blockade conditions set up by the allied and associated Powers are to remain unchanged and all German merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture. The Allies and the United States shall have consideration to the provisioning of Germany during the armistice to the extent recognized as necessary.

27. All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and immobilized in German bases to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America.

28. In evacuating the Belgian coasts and ports, Germany shall abandon all merchant ships, tugs, lighters, cranes and all other harbour materials, all materials for inland navigation, all aircraft and all materials and stores, all arms and armaments, and all stores and apparatus of all kinds.

29. All Black Sea ports are to be evacuated by Germany, all Russian war vessels of all descriptions seized by Germany in the Black Sea are to be handed over to the Allies and the United States of America; all neutral merchant vessels seized are to be released; all warlike and other materials of all kinds seized in those ports are to be returned and German materials as specified in clause twenty-eight are to be abandoned.

30. All merchant vessels in German hands belonging to the allied and associated Powers are to be restored in ports to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America without reciprocity.

31. No destruction of ships or materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender or restoration.

32. The German Government will notify neutral governments of the world, and particularly the Governments of Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Holland, that all restrictions placed on the trading of their vessels with the allied and associated countries, whether by the German Government or by private German interests, and

whether in return for specific concessions such as the export of shipbuilding materials or not, are immediately cancelled

33. No transfers of German merchant shipping of any description to any neutral flag are to take place after signature of the armistice.

VI. Duration of armistice:

34. The duration of the armistice is to be thirty days, with option to extend. During this period, on failure of execution of any of the above clauses, the armistice may be denounced by one of the contracting parties on forty-eight hours' previous notice. It is understood that the execution of Articles 3 and 18 shall not warrant the denunciation of the armistice on the ground of insufficient execution within a period fixed, except in the case of bad faith in carrying them into execution. In order to assume the execution of this convention under the best conditions, the principle of a Permanent International Armistice Commission is admitted. This commission shall act under the authority of the allied military and naval commanders-in-chief.

VIII. Time Limit for reply:

35. This armistice to be accepted or refused by Germany within seventy-two hours of notification.

FOLLOWING THE ARMISTICE

The German Emperor fled from Spa, Belgium, by motor car and crossed the Dutch border on November 10th into Holland. There, after some delay, he was given a train and completed his journey by rail to Amerongen, where a friend, Count Bentinck, was to give him his house as an asylum. All the way along the stations swarmed with Belgian refugees and others who hissed the German party and shouted "Down with William, the Assassin!" At Amerongen, William Hohenzollern kept in close touch with conditions in Germany, and on November 28th, 1918, signed his abdication. It read:

By the present document I renounce forever my rights to the crown of Prussia and the rights to the German imperial crown. I release at the same time all the officials of the German Empire and Prussia and also all officers, non-commissioned officers and soldiers of the Prussian

navy and army and of contingents from confederated states from the oath of fidelity they have taken to me, as their emperor, king, and supreme chief.

I expect from them until a new organization of the German Empire exists that they will aid those who effectively hold the power in Germany to protect the German people against the menacing dangers of anarchy, famine, and foreign domination.

Made and executed and signed by our own hand with the imperial seal at Amerongen, November 28 (1918).

WILHELM.

The late Crown Prince, Frederich Wilhelm, was interned on the island of Wieringen where he was given the extremely modest local parsonage. Six months before the ex-Kaiser had issued the pompous message: "This morning William stormed the Chemin des Dames." On December 1st at Wieringen the son issued the following statement:

I renounce formally and definitely all rights to the crown of Prussia and the imperial crown, which would have fallen to me by the renunciation of the Emperor-King, or for other reasons.

Given by my authority and signed by my hand; done at Wieringen, December 1, 1918.

FREDERICH WILHELM.

Under the terms of the armistice of November 11th the Germans agreed to evacuate all invaded allied territory by November 25th, and at once began their march toward the Rhine, closely followed by the allied armies.

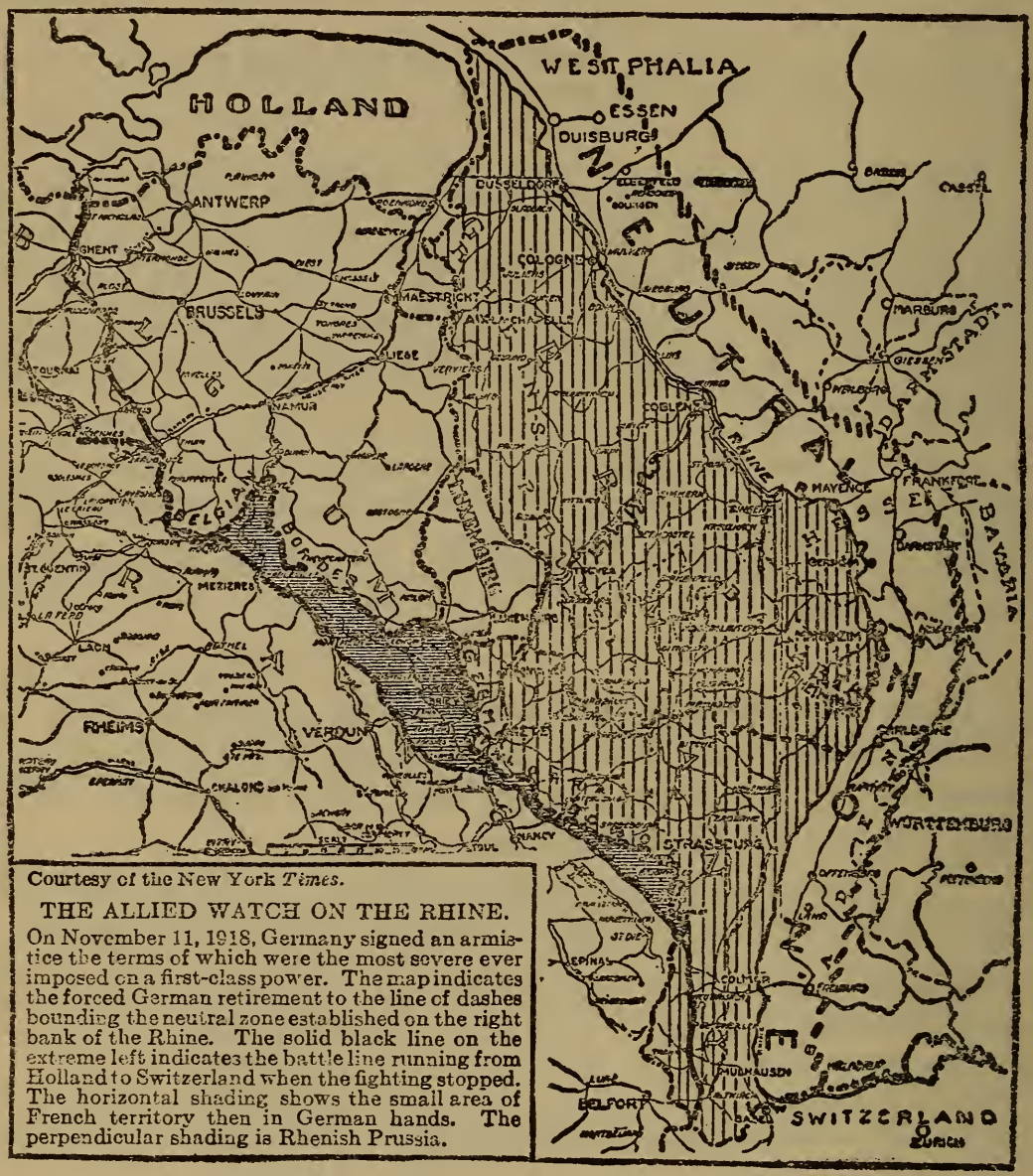
The seventeen German armies consisted of about 3,000,000 bayonets, and the allied armies of 5,938,000, made up as follows:

Two Belgian armies	300,000	combat troops
Five British armies	1,500,000	"
Three American armies	1,338,000	"
Ten French armies	2,500,000	"
One Italian, Polish and Czecho-Slovak army	300,000	"
	5,938,000	

The east bank of the Rhine for six miles and the areas around Cologne, Coblenz and Mainz within a radius of eighteen miles were to be completely freed of enemy troops. The armies of occupation consisted of all the Belgian, two British, one American and three French armies.

THE BRITISH ARMY

On December 1st British troops crossed the Belgian border and entered Germany. Defeat, revolution and the fear of worse things that might happen made the German people in general



Courtesy of the New York *Times*.

THE ALLIED WATCH ON THE RHINE.

On November 11, 1918, Germany signed an armistice the terms of which were the most severe ever imposed on a first-class power. The map indicates the forced German retirement to the line of dashes bounding the neutral zone established on the right bank of the Rhine. The solid black line on the extreme left indicates the battle line running from Holland to Switzerland when the fighting stopped. The horizontal shading shows the small area of French territory then in German hands. The perpendicular shading is Rhenish Prussia.

painfully anxious to abide by the rules laid down and get on the right side of those who now possessed the power of life and death over them. There was no more "Gott strafe England." On December 6th, British cavalry patrols, riding over the swing bridge, entered Cologne, being the first British troops to reach the Rhine. According to a tale told by Phillip Gibbs, the war correspondent, a young

Hussar pacing the bridge over the Rhine as a guard that first day was spoken to by several people, one of whom said in excellent English: "So you have wound up as the Watch on the Rhine!"

British cavalry crossed the Rhine to Cologne on December 14th and went beyond to take possession of the bridgeheads. Lancers, dragoon guards and hussars in steel helmets and with them horse artillery passed in a procession which occupied two hours, while, during the whole period, the gallant old white-haired, white-moustached commander of the Second British Army, General Sir Herbert Plumer, stood in the midst of his generals and staff officers with his hand at the salute. The band close by played "Rule Britannia," and then swung into one of the favorite songs of the army, "It's a Long, Long Trail." The British, after a march of one hundred and sixty miles, had at last arrived at that river so sacred to the Germans and which had seemed to our soldiers for several long years more difficult to reach than heaven itself. They occupied two thousand five hundred square miles of territory.

Martial law was proclaimed in Cologne on December 12th. Among the regulations particularly disliked by the Germans were those which forbade residents to leave their homes after 7 P. M. or before 6 A. M., and made all males salute British officers, and the playing of the British National Anthem by removing their hats. The other regulations were such as to protect the army of occupation from annoyance and to keep the civilian population peaceable.

THE BELGIAN ARMY

On November 22d the gallant King of the Belgians, with his equally gallant Queen, rode into his capital amid intense enthusiasm. It was a wonderful picture. People swarmed everywhere; perched on windows, ladders, posts and house-tops, they jammed the route of the procession and cheered deliriously. Not a word could be heard either when the burgomaster read his speech of welcome at the Flanders gate, or when the King replied, so thunderous was the roar of the multitude. And when the procession passed through the streets brilliant with flags and other decorations the roar of welcome seemed to increase while flowers fell like rain about the royal pair and their children following on horseback.

By December 18th the Belgians, having marched one hundred

and sixty miles, had occupied and organized their area in Rhenish Prussia of seven hundred square miles.

THE FRENCH ARMY

The enthusiastic welcome accorded Marshal Pétain, attended by Generals Fayolle and Gouraud, on November 25th upon their entry into Strasbourg, dispelled any doubts as to the delight of Alsatians at being French once more. The joy of the people and their enthusiastic plaudits for the armies of Republican France was the reward of the French poilus and their generals. On the steps of the recent Imperial Palace were Pétain, Castelnau, Fayolle and Maistre, all three commanders of army groups, while several hundred staff officers were at the foot of the steps and on either side of the march past of the chasseurs, zouaves, dragoons, artillerymen, tankmen, tirailleurs, pioneers and machine-gunners.

Alsace-Lorraine had been taken by Frenchmen once more; the bitter memory of 1870 had been avenged; the dream of nearly fifty years had been realized.

By the 3d the Tenth French Army had occupied the Valley of the Sarre and a week later General Mangin took possession of the bridgehead at Mainz.

There was no excitement, no resistance or evidence of hostile feeling towards the French. Everywhere the people instinctively made way for the uniforms, having been so drilled to consider the soldier superior to the civilian that they automatically paid the same respect to the troops of the enemy. The French came as victors over a hated foe and naturally expected some appearance of hostility. Instead they found a submission almost servile of a people that had been beaten to the ground and instead of adopting the arrogant attitude, which would have been that of the Germans had conditions been reversed, they adopted, almost despite themselves, the rôle of benefactor. It was a fine proof of the nobility of the French character as compared with that of the German. As the Americans, British and Belgians found, there did not seem to be any lack of food, but there was marked evidence that the well-to-do had been able to obtain plenty when the poorer classes had been unable to do so. Restrictions which had pressed heavily upon the poor had scarcely affected the rich and were evidently one of the widespread causes of social discontent in Germany.

The Second French Army, under General Hirschauer, had by November 25th taken up its allotted posts along the Rhine in Alsace.

THE AMERICAN ARMY

The Third American Army began its forward march on November 17th, and by the 23d were almost through the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. Owing to the slowness of the enemy march the American army was compelled to slow down and only entered the Prussian province on December 1st. After crossing the Sauer and Moselle Rivers, it spread out on a front of sixty miles and on December 11th the American army completed its march to the Rhine and established its bridgehead on December 13th in a semi-circle of eighteen miles diameter. There were no cheers, smiles or flags in Germany for these men who had come more than 3,000 miles overseas to help destroy militarism for all time.

CARRYING OUT THE TERMS OF THE ARMISTICE

As we have seen, the German High Sea Fleet and the German submarines had been surrendered to the British Admiral Beatty. The allied armies were also marching toward the Rhine to occupy both banks of that famous river.

The day before Germany signed the armistice the first British battleship, followed by a French destroyer, had anchored in the Golden Horn off Constantinople. On November 9th British troops had taken possession of the forts of Gallipoli, so pregnant with memories of the fatal summer of 1915. By the end of the first week in December a military administration under the direction of the British vice and rear admirals was in full running order in Constantinople. Two weeks later, on November 26th, an allied naval squadron passed through the Black Sea and took possession of the Russian ships at Sebastopol which had been surrendered to the Germans by the Bolsheviki.

Von Mackensen's army of 170,000 men in Rumania, while attempting to pass through Hungary to Germany, was interned on November 30th on the demand of the French authorities.

In the Italian area the Austro-Hungarian authorities had completed the terms of the armistice in so far as evacuation of territory was concerned and Italy was in full possession of the

terrain to be occupied by her, pending the signing of the Peace Treaty and the inclusion in that of the Treaty of London.

Though the troops of occupation made no attempt to set up civil governments the Italian population in Gorizia, Trent and Trieste attempted to do so. Immediate conflict with Jugo-Slavs took place and at Fiume and Pola an unfortunate situation developed. Fiume was outside the territory of evacuation but had a predominating Italian population and an Italian municipal council. Armed Jugo-Slavs entered the town, forced the authorities to take down the Italian flag and substitute that of the Jugo-Slavs. Italians celebrating the victory of their armies were shot and terrorized until the Italian General Diaz ordered Fiume to be taken and his countrymen relieved.

THE SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN FLEET

When the German envoys were notified of the naval conditions of the armistice by Admiral Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, the Admiralty representative is said to have replied to the Germans in terms which adequately showed the relative conditions of the two fleets.

"It is inadmissible," the Germans protested, "that our fleet should be given up without having been beaten."

To which Admiral Wemyss retorted: "It only had to come out!"

The naval terms were of necessity accepted by Germany and a date and place arranged for the surrender of Germany's ships.

The annals of naval warfare hold no parallel to the surrender of the German fleet; nothing so humiliating has ever been seen.

On the night before the surrender the British Grand Fleet lay at its mooring in the Firth of the Forth. Among them was a French armoured cruiser and two destroyers, and five American dreadnoughts. All through the night the flagship was in touch with the German fleet steaming towards the place of rendezvous. At 2 A. M. the German fleet was seventy-two miles out and proceeding at a speed of twelve knots an hour.

At 4 A. M. on November 21st, 1918, the first battle squadron, led by the *Revenge*, put to sea with the *Queen Elizabeth* bringing up the rear. One by one the black silhouettes, canopied in smoke, followed and at daybreak the Grand Fleet, in two long columns,

was at sea moving towards the on-coming enemy fleet. About 9.30 a sausage balloon, towed by the *Cardiff*, came into view.

Then there emerged from the murk about three miles away the first of the German ships. The British fleet then wheeled by squadrons back on its own track on both sides of the Germans so as to be ready to escort them to their anchorage.

It was the dawn of Der Tag—The Day when the German fleet was to meet the British. But how different from that which millions of Germans had visualized when they toasted Der Tag in heady cups of potent liquor! It was another Trafalgar—a bloodless one—in which a nation had her sea power completely annihilated without having fired a shot.

Forty-seven allied battleships and battle cruisers, thirty-five cruisers and two hundred destroyers, with one hundred thousand personnel, waited to receive the capitulation of thirteen German battleships and battle cruisers, six cruisers and forty-nine destroyers, manned by seventeen thousand officers and men.

First the great German battle cruisers, headed by the *Seydlitz*, and followed by the *Moltke*, *Hindenburg*, *Derflinger* and *Von der Tann* passed down the somber lines of the allied fleets. The German ships, led by the little cruiser *Cardiff*, and with a British naval airship flying overhead, slipped by with their guns trained fore and aft according to Admiral Beatty's orders. The battle stations on the British vessels were manned with gun crews, a sad reflection upon the German reputation for honour. No chances were being taken.

Behind these came the German dreadnoughts, cruisers and destroyers, escorted and completely covered by British destroyers. Flotilla after flotilla, stretching away into the haze out of sight, moved forward towards the anchorage appointed for the German ships at May Island in the Firth of Forth, guarded by the British Grand Fleet. The low mist obscured and blurred the ships and robbed the pageant of some of its splendour yet it seemed peculiarly fitting that the surrender should have taken place under the typical weather conditions of the North Sea endured by the British seamen for four long years.

As the German ships came to anchor they were surrounded by their British warders while the main body of the Grand Fleet made its way back to the stations from which it had started.

There had never been a naval surrender in history like it. Under similar circumstances the fleets of France, Russia and Spain had come out and with the prospect of certain doom fought their ships to the end and gone down fighting. This was a day of humiliation even to the British and American sailors and there was little rejoicing at the ignominious end of a fleet and a profession similar to their own. Every sailor felt compromised by the humiliating action of the parvenu fleet which two years before had put up only a half-hearted fight and then fled to the shelter of its harbours, where it had remained till the day it yielded. Had the ships been scuttled or blown up our sailors would have felt some admiration for the pride that was responsible for such action. But there were no sea traditions in the German navy. The German as always was logical and probably agreed that it was no use to be foolish and fight a losing battle or destroy the ships because it wouldn't help them. Therefore he chose to give them up.

An hour before noon Admiral Beatty signalled to the fleet: "The German flag will be hauled down at sunset to-day. It will not be hoisted again without permission." All the while the German flags were flying on the main-tops of the seventy-one German vessels lying at anchor. On the *Queen Elizabeth* the men assembled aft at 4 o'clock thinking they would hear a speech from the commander-in-chief. Suddenly the bugle rang out "making sunset" and the crew, instantly turning, saluted the British flag, following this with deafening cheers for Admiral Beatty who acknowledged the tribute with the words: "Thank you. I always told you they would have to come out."

Then the German flag on the seventy-one German ships was hauled down.

On the first of December, the day after the Sixth American Battle Squadron was detached from the Grand Fleet, Admiral Beatty made a notable address of farewell on board the American battleship *New York*.

After thanking the American officers and men for their co-operation, Sir David remarked that both the British and Americans were disappointed at not having been able to meet the German fleet. He declared that the day the German fleet surrendered was a "pitiful day to see." He said he had always had misgivings that the Germans would never come out for a finish fight, and

these misgivings had been strengthened by the coming of the American squadron.

"I could not let the Sixth Battle Squadron go without coming on board the *New York* and saying something of what I feel at this moment of your departure," said Sir David.

"What I say, I hope you will understand comes from the heart, not only my heart, but the hearts of your comrades of the Grand Fleet. . . . This support which you have shown is that of true comradeship, and in time of stress that is worth a very great deal. . . . I do not want to keep you here any longer, but want to congratulate you for having been present upon a day unsurpassed in the naval annals of the world.

"I know quite well that you, as well as your British comrades, were bitterly disappointed at not being able to give effect to that efficiency you have so well maintained. It was a most disappointing day. It was a pitiful day to see those great ships coming in like sheep being herded by dogs to their fold, without an effort on anybody's part, but it was a day everybody could be proud of.

"However, the disappointment that the Grand Fleet was unable to strike their blow for the freedom of the world is counteracted by the fact that it was their prestige alone that brought about this achievement.

"During the last twelve months you have been with us, we have learned to know each other very well. We have learned to respect each other. I want you to take back a message to the Atlantic fleet that you have left a very warm place in the hearts of the Grand Fleet which cannot be filled until you come back or send another squadron to represent you.

"I understand that you are now going to Portland, where you are to get leave. There is a duty to perform in bringing your President to these waters, and then you will return to your own shores. And I hope that in the sunshine which, Admiral Rodman tells me, always shines there, you will not forget your 'comrades of the mist' and your pleasant associations of the North Sea.

"I thank you again and again for the great part the Sixth Battle Squadron has played in bringing about the greatest naval victory in history. I hope you will give this message to your comrades: 'Come back soon.'

"Good-bye, and good luck!"

The surrender of the one hundred and twenty-nine German submarines was made to Commodore Sir Reginald Yorke Tyrwhitt at Harwich, beginning two days later. The U-boats arrived in batches of about twenty-five at a time. The actual business of accepting the submarines was carried out by officers and men of the British submarine service.

Among the first twenty-six U-boats surrendered was the U-135, a boat completed only three months before. She was two hundred and seventy-six feet long and had never been to sea until she came across the Channel to surrender. Among the last to be surrendered was U-153, commonly known as the *Deutschland*, so well known for her trip to America before the United States entered the war.

THE FALL OF KINGS AND EMPERORS

As the war drew to a close autocracies and bureaucracies, thrones and dynasties began to crumble. The first to go was, naturally, that of Russia. In 1906 the Duma had been formed. Up to that time the Russian bureaucracy had exercised absolute authority—in the name of the Czar. The Russian revolution, which had been aimed at this extraordinary organization rather than at the Czar himself, had formed Russia out of chaos. For the first time the countless millions of Jews, Armenians, Russians, Poles, Tartars, Calmuchs, Circassians, Letts, Georgians and Esthonians found an articulate national voice.

Ground down by the aristocracy, the Church and the bureaucracy with its gigantic organization of police, spies and soldiery, the Russian peasantry was the most miserable people on earth. The upper Russian classes were perhaps the best educated in Europe; the lower were the most ignorant and brutalized. Thousands of the educated, seeing what a terrible condition Russia was in, became ardent socialists and anarchists. In spite of all that the police could do revolutionary propaganda was broadcasted throughout the country so that the Russians become the most expert propagandists in the world.

The Poles wanted Home Rule; the Jews demanded equality; each race had its own needs, but one and all demanded freedom. Surcharged with hate, fearful hope and reckless idealism, Russia longed for the reforms that would enable men to be free, to obtain justice, to live happily. To these millions hungering and thirsting

for a new and righteous system of Government the Czar granted a means of expression in the Duma. But before the Duma met he promulgated what were called the Fundamental Laws of the Empire. It was not a constitution; it was not a charter. It was a declaration of what the Crown would keep and what it would yield.

In the Duma the people were given a voice but no power; the Czar and the Russian bureaucracy still remained omnipotent. It was little wonder then that the Russian people, when their opportunity came, and the soldiery in barracks, saturated with socialistic propaganda, refused to longer serve the bureaucratic element and fire upon the people, rose in red rebellion. Czar Nicholas, the House of Romanoff and the dynasty disappeared in the ruin and the first of the King row had fallen.

The story of the fall of the House of Hohenzollern would fill a volume. It is a far cry from the dream of world conquest, and, in shining helmet and imperial uniform, dictating terms of peace in the hall of Versailles, to the little house at Amerongen, Holland. Fearful of his own life, William, late Emperor of Germany, signed his abdication and fled across the border to await the judgment of the Allied Conference. His son, the late Crown Prince, the one time prince of swashbucklers, shorn of all reputation for ability or brains by his record during the war, had also fled to a modest exile at Wieringen.

Emperor Charles of Austria-Hungary abdicated and passed over into Switzerland, thereby bringing to an end the tragic house of the Hapsburgs.

At Zurich, in Switzerland, Constantine, the late King of Greece, found opportunity for reflection upon the folly of trying to steer Greece through the middle course of neutrality.

"Somewhere in Austria," Ferdinand, surnamed "The Fox," and one time King of Bulgaria, lived an unostentatious existence, after trying in vain to steer his ship of state before every favourable wind and yet avoid disaster.

Nicholas, formerly King of Montenegro, sojourned sadly in France without hope of again occupying the throne.

Louis, the erstwhile King of Bavaria, and Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, succeeded in successfully leaving their country and obtaining an exile in Switzerland.

CHAPTER XXXV

Canada's Official War Record*

In the early months of 1914 Canada, for practical purposes, had no army. There was a permanent force of about 3,000 men, with no reserve; its purpose was partly to provide garrisons for our few fortresses, and partly to train the militia. The latter was a lightly trained force, rather well organized for a defensive war on its own soil. The number trained in 1913 was about 60,000.

In the late summer and early autumn of 1914, the First Canadian division of 33,000 men was raised and sent across the Atlantic. It left Gaspé Bay on October 3d and, after nearly three months of additional training in England, landed in France, at Ste. Nazaire, on February 11, 1915. The Second division was formed immediately and landed in France on September 14th, when the Canadian Army Corps was formed. The formation of the Third division was authorized just before Christmas, 1915, and the division was in France early in 1916. The Fourth division joined the Canadian Corps in the middle of August, 1916. The Canadian cavalry brigade appeared in France in 1915.

The total number of men enlisted in Canada from the beginning of the war to November 15, 1918, was 595,441.

Obtained by voluntary enlistment		465,984
Drafted or reporting voluntarily after the Military Service Act came into force		83,355
Granted leave or discharge		24,933
Overseas Service other than C. E. F.:		
Royal air force	12,902	
Imperial motor transport	710	
Inland water transport	4,701	
Naval service	2,814	
Jewish Palestine draft	42	
		21,169
		595,441

*Condensed account of Canada's part in the Great War, issued by the Department of Public Information, Ottawa, January, 1919.

The distribution of these men was as follows:

C. E. F. proceeded overseas	418,052
Enlisted for Royal air force, etc	21,169
On the strength of C. E. F. in Canada and St. Lucia, including those under training as overseas re-enforcements, Siberian Expeditionary Force, Canadian garrison regiment, military police, medical and administrative services, etc	36,533
On harvest leave without pay	15,405
Granted leave of absence without pay as compassionate and hardship cases	7,216
Number discharged in Canada who had not proceeded overseas for the following among other reasons, as below medical standard, absentees, aliens, to accept commissions, deaths, or transfer to British army and Royal air force	95,306
Included in enlistment returns, for whom discharge documents have not been received, or in some cases duplicate enlistments. This number is being adjusted as further records are received.	1,760
	595,441

In addition to the above, 14,590 British and allied reservists went from Canada to rejoin the colours in their own countries.

The movement overseas by years was as follows:

Before December 31, 1914	30,999
Calender year 1915	84,334
Calendar year 1916	165,553
Calendar year 1917	63,536
January 1 to November 15, 1918	73,630

On September 30, 1918, about 160,000 men were in France and about 116,000 men in England.

The total casualties sustained by the Canadian Expeditionary Force, and reported up to January 15, 1919, were 218,433.

	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Total.
Killed in action	1,844	33,840	35,684
Died of wounds	614	11,823	12,437
Died of disease	227	3,830	4,057
Wounded	7,133	148,706	155,839
Prisoners of war	....	.....	3,049
Presumed dead	142	4,540	4,682
Missing	37	361	398
Deaths in Canada	....	....	2,287
Total			218,433
Before December 31, 1915			14,500

By periods the casualties were (in approximate figures):

Calendar year 1916	56,500
Calendar year 1917	74,500
Calendar year 1918	73,000

HONOURS TO CANADIAN SOLDIERS

The following are the honours granted to members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force up to December 20, 1918:

Victoria Cross	53
Distinguished Service Order	513
First Bar to Distinguished Service Order	41
Second Bar to Distinguished Service Order	6
Military Cross	1,882
Bar to Military Cross	99
Distinguished Conduct Medal	1,186
Bar to Distinguished Conduct Medal	16
Military Medal	6,697
First Bar to Military Medal	271
Second Bar to Military Medal	10
Meritorious Service Medal	430
Mentioned in Despatches	3,333
Royal Red Cross	192
Other British Honours	226

Foreign Decorations—
French, 410; Belgian, 7.
Serbian, 7; Italian, 28.
Montenegrin, 8; Russian, 159.

THE CANADIAN FORCE AT THE FRONT

The distribution of the Canadian troops in France and Belgium on September 30, 1918, was as follows:

The Canadian Army Corps, forming part of the first British army, consisted of four divisions and corps troops. Each division consisted of three infantry brigades, each of which was made up of four battalions of infantry and one trench mortar battery, and the following divisional troops: Artillery—two brigades, two medium and one heavy trench mortar batteries, and a divisional ammunition column; one battalion of the machine gun corps; Engineers—three engineer battalions, one pontoon bridging transport unit, and one divisional employment company; divisional train of four companies; Medical Services—three field ambulances, one sanitary section and one mobile veterinary section; divisional

signals of four sections, one at divisional headquarters and one with each brigade.

The corps troops were as follows:

Corps Artillery—Three brigades of garrison artillery containing twelve siege batteries and two heavy batteries, one anti-aircraft battery of five sections, three brigades of field artillery, two medium and one heavy trench mortar batteries, one divisional artillery ammunition column and two motor machine gun brigades.

Corps Engineers—Pontoon bridging unit, five army troop companies, an anti-aircraft searchlight company and corps survey section, two tramway companies.

Corps Medical Services—One field ambulance, one sanitary section, the dental laboratory and the veterinary evacuating station.

Corps Signaling Services—The corps signal company, two motor air line sections, four cable sections, four brigade signal subsections and one C. D. A. brigade detachment.

Army Service Corps—Headquarters mechanical transport column, seven mechanical transport companies, one divisional artillery mechanical transport detachment, one artillery brigade section and one divisional train detachment.

Ordnance Services—Three ordnance mobile workshops.

Miscellaneous—Infantry school, machine gun school, Lewis gun school, signal school, gas service school, instructors' pool, gymnastic staff, Canadian records list, Y. M. C. A. services, corps military police and two railhead army postoffices.

Labour Services—Labour group headquarters, four labour companies, a pontoon bridging officers' establishment and five Canadian area employment companies.

Each division contained 19,000 to 20,000 troops, and there were about 10,000 corps troops, making about 90,000 men in the corps.

The Canadian cavalry brigade formed part of the Third British cavalry division belonging to the third army and consisted of three cavalry regiments, a machine gun squadron, the royal Canadian horse artillery, a signal troop, a field ambulance and a mobile veterinary section. There were about 3,000 men in the brigade, which was part of the third army.

The following Canadian units, separate from the Canadian Corps, were attached to the five British armies:

First Army—Two casualty clearing stations, one sanitary section, one railroad supply detachment and two battalions of railway troops.

Second Army—One casualty clearing station, one advance depot medical stores, two battalions of railway troops, two auxiliary horse transport companies, one field butchery, two depot units of supply, a railhead supply detachment and a tunneling company.

Third Army—One casualty clearing station, one railhead supply detachment, three battalions of railway troops and the overseas railway construction corps.

Fourth Army—One medical corps mobile laboratory, four battalions of railway troops, one light railway operating company and one broad-gauge operating company.

Fifth Army—One battalion of railway troops.

On the line of communications and attached to British general headquarters were the following: Thirteen depot units of supply, four field bakeries and two field butcheries, which were distributed at Boulogne, Calais and Dieppe; six general hospitals and six stationary hospitals, which were at eight different places; the general base depot, the infantry base depot, the machine-gun base depot, the labour pool, the report centre, the command pay office, the dental store, two field auxiliary postoffices, the base postoffice, one veterinary hospital, one battalion of railway troops, one wagon erecting company and one engine crew company.

The following troops of the Canadian forestry corps were distributed at eleven places in France: Sixty-three forestry companies, five district workshops, one construction company, one technical warehouse, one forestry hospital and two detention hospitals.

There were altogether about 160,000 Canadians serving in France on September 30, 1918.

The Canadian Army Corps is commanded by Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie, with the following divisional commanders: First division, Major-General A. C. MacDonell; Second division, Major-General Sir H. E. Burstall; Third division, Major-General F. O. W. Loomis; Fourth division, Major-General Sir D. Watson.

OPERATIONS

The following summary gives only the more notable engagements in which the Canadian troops fought. In 1915 the First

division greatly distinguished itself in the second battle of Ypres, on April 22d, and again at Festubert and Givenchy, in May and June. In 1916 the Canadians, now forming three divisions, were very heavily engaged at St. Eloi in April, and at Sanctuary Wood and Hooge in June. In September, October and November the four Canadian divisions fought in the battle of the Somme, especially distinguishing themselves at Courcelette, Mouquet Farm, and the Kenora, Regina and Desire trenches.

In 1917, the Canadian troops bore the largest part in the taking of Vimy Ridge (April 9th) and of Arleux and Fresnoy (April 28th and May 3d), and fought with great success in the advance on Lens and the taking of Hill 70 in August. They were again heavily engaged in the fighting round Passchendaele in October and November, capturing all their objectives in spite of severe losses.

In 1918 the Canadian cavalry, motor machine guns and railway troops were active in the resistance to the German advance in March. The Canadian Corps was in the centre of the British front in the second battle of Amiens, August 8–17th, advancing 14,000 yards on the first day, the deepest advance made in one day during the war. In the battle of Arras, at the beginning of September, the Canadians played an important part in the breaking of the Queant-Drocourt line, a part of the Hindenburg system. The Canadian casualties in these two actions were serious but less than the number of prisoners taken.

The battle of Cambrai began on September 27th, and on October 9th the Canadians, after heavy losses, took Cambrai and made large captures of men and material. In the final stage of the fighting Denain was taken by the Canadians on October 20th, Valenciennes on November 2d and Mons at 4 A. M. on November 11th, on which day the armistice came into force, at 11 A. M.

The Canadian troops captured 45,000 prisoners, 850 artillery guns and 4,200 machine guns, recaptured 130 towns and villages, and liberated 310,000 French and Belgian civilians.

Canadian units also served in Palestine, Macedonia and Russia.

THE CAVALRY BRIGADE

The Canadian cavalry fought, for the most part, separately from the Canadian Army Corps. They distinguished themselves in

March, 1917, by the capture of six villages in two days, and in December gave valuable help in the attack on Villers-Cuislains. In the German offensive of March and April, 1918, the Canadian cavalry brigade was actively engaged and suffered heavy casualties at Bois Moreuil, Rifle Wood and elsewhere. The brigade fought as part of the Canadian Corps in the second battle of Amiens and, in the great advance at the end of the fighting, captured the town of Le Cateau on October 9th.

Canadian railway units were attached to all the British armies. Canadian railway troops were responsible for the whole of the construction of light railways and of sixty per cent of the standard-gauge railways in the area occupied by the British forces.

In addition to the units of the Canadian forestry corps serving in France and mentioned above, a large number of Canadians were engaged in Great Britain in cutting down and milling timber.

ARMY MEDICAL CORPS

During the war 1,617 medical officers, 2,002 nursing sisters and 12,382 other ranks of the Canadian army medical corps went overseas from Canada. There were in Canada at the end of the war 913 medical officers, 527 nursing sisters, 182 V. A. D. nurses, and 4,012 other ranks.

The medical corps maintained in France 6 general hospitals, 6 stationary hospitals, 6 casualty clearing stations and 13 field ambulances, and in England 9 active treatment hospitals, 5 special hospitals, 5 convalescent hospitals and a special sanatorium. In Canada there are 65 military hospitals with 11,786 beds.

Some 22,300 patients were brought back to Canada in 1917 and 1918 on 35 passages of hospital ships. On 27 of these passages the C. A. M. C. provided the staffs of the ships. The *Llandovery Castle* was sunk by a submarine while returning to England.

About 12,000 troops have been required in Canada for home defence—as garrisons for fortresses and guards for internment camps, canals, etc. Canada has also furnished a garrison for the important military post of St. Lucia, in the West Indies.

IMPERIAL SERVICES

Twelve thousand nine hundred and two Canadians have joined the Royal air force and its predecessors the Royal naval air service

and the Royal flying corps. In addition, a number of Americans have been trained in Canada by the instructional staff of the Royal air force.

Some 4,701 men have been furnished from Canada for the imperial service known as the inland waterways and docks. About 710 Canadians have joined the imperial motor transport service, and several hundred Canadians, mostly from the universities, have received commissions in the British army. Canada has also furnished several hundred doctors and veterinarians, and about two hundred nurses to the British army.

Some two hundred Canadian officers have been lent, as instructors, to the United States.

Several thousands of Poles, Serbians and Montenegrins have been enlisted in Canada for service with their own countrymen.

Military Service Act.—Until the winter of 1917–18 the Canadian Expeditionary Force was recruited by voluntary enlistment. During the winter the Military Service Act came into operation, and after this time 83,355 recruits were obtained for the force. These were partly men who were drafted and partly men, in the classes called out, who reported voluntarily.

The enforcement of the act was put in the hands of a special force of Dominion police, which later became the Canadian Military Police Corps. This body was assisted, in certain districts, by the Royal Northwest Mounted Police.

The number of cases investigated was 269,121, but as the men concerned moved from one place to another, it often occurred that one man was the subject of several investigations. Among these were: 18,824 defaulters, who failed to register; 9,454 absentees, who failed to report when ordered; and 2,304 deserters.

Royal Military College.—The Royal Military College has a very distinguished record in connection with the war. Of the 914 graduates and ex-cadets who have served, 353 were granted commissions direct from the college, and 43 enlisted with a view to obtaining commissions; 138 ex-cadets have been reported as killed in action, dead of wounds, or missing.

Ex-cadets of the college have won the following honours and decorations: 1 Victoria Cross, 106 Distinguished Service Orders, 109 Military Crosses, 2 Distinguished Flying Crosses, 62 other British decorations, 42 foreign decorations.

Three Canadian and one Australian division have been commanded by graduates of the college. The graduates who have served in the war include one lieutenant-general, eight major-generals, and twenty-six brigadier-generals. The college has had between 1,300 and 1,400 cadets on its rolls since its foundation.

THE NAVAL SERVICE

Cruisers.—At the outbreak of war in 1914 the Canadian Government possessed only two naval vessels, the *Niobe*, a cruiser of 11,000 tons displacement, with a main armament of sixteen 6-inch guns, stationed at Halifax, and the *Rainbow*, a small cruiser of 3,600 tons displacement, armed with two 6-inch, six 4.7-inch and four 12-pounder guns, stationed at Esquimalt, on the Pacific. The *Rainbow*, which was ready for sea, patrolled, with other ships on the Pacific station, as far south as Panama, and captured several ships carrying contraband of war. After the entry of the United States into the war, she became depot ship on the Pacific Coast. The *Niobe* was made ready for sea in September, 1914, and remained in commission one year, during which she steamed over 30,000 miles on patrol duty. She afterwards became depot ship at Halifax.

Smaller Vessels.—At the beginning of hostilities, various small craft were taken over by the Naval Department from the Departments of Marine and of Customs, and were armed and manned from the R. C. N. V. R. for the performance of patrol duties off the Atlantic Coast. Two submarines, which were bought just before the declaration of war, patrolled the approaches to Victoria and Vancouver and helped in keeping Admiral von Spee's squadron away from the Pacific ports. H. M. sloop *Shearwater* was taken into the Canadian service as mother ship to these submarines and, in the summer of 1917, these three vessels went, by way of Panama Canal, to Halifax.

Trawlers and Drifters.—A patrol and mine-sweeping service has been carried on since the outbreak of war. Early in 1917 the Department of Naval Service undertook to have sixty trawlers and one hundred drifters built in Canada for the Imperial Government. These vessels were built at various places on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes; many of them were in service in Canadian and European waters in the year 1917, and all were in service in 1918.

The area patrolled under the department stretched from the Straits of Belle Isle to the Bay of Fundy, and from Quebec to east of the Virgin Rocks. Within this area the department had control of patrols, convoys, mine-sweeping, the protection of fishing fleets, etc. Only one large vessel was lost by enemy attack in this area.

At the date of the armistice the vessels in the Canadian Naval Service were as follows:

On the Pacific.—H. M. C. S. *Rainbow*, depot and training ship; H. M. S. *Algerine*, sloop; auxiliary patrol ship *Malaspina;* several motor launches for harbour defence.

On the Atlantic.—H. M. C. S. *Niobe*, depot and training ship; H. M. C. S. *Shearwater*, submarine depot ship, and two submarines; H. M. C. S. *Grilse*, torpedo-boat destroyer; nine auxiliary patrol ships, forty-seven armed trawlers, fifty-eight armed drifters, eleven armed mine-sweepers and tugs, and a large flotilla of motor launches.

Personnel.—The crews of these vessels consisted of men from all parts of Canada, principally members of the Royal Canadian Naval Volunteer Reserve. At the date of the armistice the personnel of the service was:

Officers and men of the Royal Canadian Navy, 749.

Officers and men of the Royal Canadian Naval Volunteer Reserve, 4,374.

Naval College.—Canada is fortunate in the possession of a small but excellent naval college. More than fifty officers who passed out of the college as cadets are serving in either the Imperial or Canadian navy. Many of them have gained distinction, and four lost their lives in the battle of Coronel.

Canadians in the Imperial Naval Forces.—In addition to the men serving on Canadian vessels, over 1,700 men have been recruited in Canada for the Imperial navy, and are on service in European waters; seventy-three surgeon probationers and a number of hydrographic survey officers have been sent from Canada, and 580 Canadians were enrolled as probationary flight lieutenants in the Royal Naval Air Service, before recruiting for the Royal air force began in Canada. More than five hundred Canadians holding commissions in the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve are in British Auxiliary Patrol and similar services.

Naval Air Service.—The Royal Canadian Naval Air Service

was established in the summer of 1918, with stations at Halifax and North Sydney. It has co-operated with the United States Naval Aviation Corps in patrolling the coast and escorting convoys through the danger zone.

Wireless Service.—The Canadian Radiotelegraph Service controls about two hundred stations ashore and afloat. Several new stations have been erected or taken over by the Department of Naval Service and there is now an unbroken chain of radio communication from St. John's, Newfoundland, to Demerara. The department opened a training school for wireless operators, from which about two hundred men have been sent out for service in all parts of the world.

Dockyards.—Important refitting, repairing, and supply work has been done by the Canadian dockyards. Large refits of Imperial and other ships were made at Esquimalt, including H. M. S. *Kent*, after the battle of the Falkland Islands, and the Japanese battleship *Asama*, after grounding on the coast of lower California. Several large cruisers were refitted at Halifax and Montreal. Other work included the defensive armament of merchant ships, the refitting of transports for troops, horses, and special cargo, and the loading and securing on ships' decks of six hundred launches, tugs, etc., of large size.

The Halifax dockyard was seriously damaged by the explosion in the harbour on December 6, 1917, but immediate steps were taken to enable the services of the yard to be carried on.

Stores.—The Canadian Naval Service provided supplies for the ships of the Royal Canadian Navy and for a number of Imperial and allied ships in Canadian waters, as well as many of the requirements of H. M. dockyards at Bermuda and Hong Kong. Large supplies were shipped from Halifax dockyard for provisioning the fleets in European waters. A large coaling depot was established at Sydney for the use of patrolling vessels and of all convoys leaving the St. Lawrence.

The growth of the naval service since the outbreak of war is shown by the increase in the quantities of stores purchased in the last three fiscal years:

1915–16	$2,500,000
1916–17	7,500,000
1917–18	10,000,000

Overseas Transport.—By arrangement with the Admiralty and the British Ministry of Shipping, the Director of Overseas Transport appointed by the Canadian Government controlled the inland traffic, by rail or otherwise, in food supplies and munitions for transport overseas, the reception and storage at ports of shipment, the allocation of cargo and its stowage on board the ships.

The average monthly export was: in 1915, 50,000 tons; in 1916, 170,000 tons; in 1917, 331,000 tons; and in 1918 (to December 1), 387,000 tons. From January 1, 1915, to December 1, 1918, over 11,250,000 tons of freight were shipped.

SHIPBUILDING

There were 103 steel and wooden ships with a total tonnage of 367,367, built in Canada during the war.

A large Government shipbuilding programme is being carried out by the Department of Marine. Contracts have been authorized for 39 ships of 3,400 to 10,500 tons, having a total deadweight tonnage of 233,350. These ships are being, or to be, built at ten different Canadian shipyards.

The Department of Naval Service has had the following vessels built for various governments during the war:

For the Imperial Government.—Twelve submarines, 60 armed trawlers, 100 armed drifters, 550 coastal patrol motor boats, and 24 steel lighters for use in Mesopotamia.

For the French Government.—Six armed trawlers and 36 coastal patrol motor boats.

For the Italian Government.—Six submarines.

For the Russian Government.—One large armed ice-breaker and some submarines.

FINANCE

Government Loans.—The Canadian Government, since the commencement of the war, has issued domestic loans as follows:

	Amount of Loan	Number of Subscribers
1. 1915–1925, 5 per cent	$100,000,000	24,862
2. 1916–1931, 5 per cent	100,000,000	34,526
3. 1917–1937, 5 per cent	139,000,000	41,000
4. 1917–1937 (Victory Loan), 5½ per cent	398,000,000	820,035
5. 1918 (Second Victory Loan), 5½ per cent	660,000,000	1,067,879

In addition, War Savings Certificates to the amount of approximately $12,500,000, as well as a considerable amount of debenture stock, have been sold, bringing the Government's borrowings from the people of Canada since the beginning of the war to the total sum of $1,436,000,000, or in other words, $192 per capita of the population of the Dominion.

Advances Between the Dominion Government and Great Britain.—Since the outbreak of war to November 30, 1918, Canada has established credits on behalf of the Imperial Government to the amount of $709,000,000. Through these advances Great Britain was able to finance the purchase of foodstuffs, hay and other commodities and to carry on the operations of the Imperial Munitions Board in Canada.

In addition to the above, Canadian chartered banks have advanced to the Imperial Government through the medium of the Minister of Finance the sum of $200,000,000 for the purchase of munitions and wheat. This was made possible by the large savings deposits in Canadian banks, which from August, 1914, to October 31, 1918, despite the withdrawals for subscription to war loans, increased by $417,115,476.

On the other hand, Great Britain has made advances to the Dominion totalling $609,000,000. These credits were chiefly for the maintenance of the Canadian troops overseas.

Up to November 30, 1918, the total outlay for the war was approximately $1,068,606,527. This amount includes all expenditures in Canada, Great Britain and France, and is also inclusive of the upkeep of the troops overseas. The interest and pension payments attributable to the war amount for the entire war period to approximately $76,000,000. These have been provided from the Consolidated Revenue Fund.

Net Debt.—The net debt of Canada, which before the war stood at about $336,000,000, has now passed the billion-dollar mark, and on November 30, 1918, amounted to $1,307,429,661. The increase is almost entirely attributable to war expenditures.

WAR TAXATION

Tax on Luxuries.—Taxation on luxuries has been gradually introduced since the beginning of the war as it was justified by the financial condition of the country. Increased customs duties

and higher rates of excise on certain commodities, including liquors and tobacco, imposed soon after the commencement of the war, were followed in 1915 by a war tax on transportation tickets, telegrams, money orders, cheques, letters, patent medicines, etc. In 1915 an increase of 7½ per cent ad valorem to the general tariff and 5 per cent ad valorem to the British preferential tariff was made on all commodities with the exception of certain foodstuffs, coal, harvesting machinery, fisheries equipment, etc.

Increase of Customs Duties.—In 1918 a special customs duty was imposed on tea and coffee and the excise on tobacco was increased. In addition, various other taxes were imposed or increased, and a special war excise tax was imposed on various articles, including automobiles, jewelry, etc.

Business Profits Tax.—Under the Business Profits War Tax Act, as at present amended, the Government, in the case of all businesses having a capital of $50,000 and over, takes 25 per cent of the net profits over 7 per cent and not exceeding 15 per cent, 50 per cent of the profits over 15 per cent and not exceeding 20 per cent, and 75 per cent of the profits beyond 20 per cent. In the case of businesses having a capital of $25,000 and under $50,000 the Government takes 25 per cent of all profits in excess of 10 per cent on the capital employed. Companies employing capital of less than $25,000 are exempted, with the exception of those dealing in munitions or war supplies.

Income Tax.—The Canadian income tax, which came into effect in the year 1918–19, is in many respects higher than that in force in the United States. The scale provides for the exemption of incomes, in the case of unmarried persons with an income of $1,000 and under, and in the case of married persons with an income of $2,000 and under. There is also provision for the exemption of $200 for each child.

Proceeds of Taxation, 1917–18.—During the last fiscal year the Dominion Government collected by way of war taxation $76,073,000.

WAR SAVINGS AND THRIFT STAMPS

The issue of $50,000,000 worth of War Savings Stamps was begun in the latter part of 1918, with the object of encouraging thrift and saving among the people of Canada. For a War Savings Stamp, the cost of which at the end of 1918 or the beginning

of 1919 was $4, the Government will pay $5 in 1924. Thrift stamps, which cost 25 cents each, are a means of buying War Savings Stamps on the instalment plan.

GOLD SHIPMENTS

Reference should be made to the fact that since the outbreak of the war quantities of gold coin and gold bullion to the value of $1,300,000,000 have been received at Ottawa by the Department of Finance as trustee for the Imperial Government and the Bank of England. The heavy demand on the gold refinery at the Royal Mint, Ottawa, led to the construction (in eight weeks) of a second plant with a monthly output of a million ounces of fine gold. Through this extension this refinery has developed the largest capacity of any gold refinery in the world.

In addition to the above operations, certain parts for gun-sights were produced at the Royal Mint, Ottawa, for the Imperial Government. They consisted chiefly of eye-piece cells, and the total production up to December 20, 1918, of this equipment amounted to 31,587 parts.

MUNITIONS

The following figures give some idea of what Canada has accomplished in the production of munitions of war:

VALUE OF MUNITIONS AND MATERIALS EXPORTED FROM CANADA

1914 to December 31		$28,164
1915	"	57,213,688
1916	"	296,505,257
1917	"	388,213,553
1918	"	260,711,751
		$1,002,672,413

QUANTITIES EXPORTED

Shells	65,343,647
Fuses	29,638,126
Fuse parts	16,174,073
Cartridge cases	48,627,673
Percussion primers	35,386,488
Exploder containers	13,285,000
Shell and adapter forgings	6,412,115

QUANTITIES EXPORTED—CONTINUED

Explosives and Chemicals:	Pounds
T. N. T.	41,754,950
Cordite	28,542,157
Other (more than)	41,000,000
Metals and Compounds:	
Steel bars	43,077,923
Zinc	35,412,413
Nickel	1,792,000
Other (more than)	27,000,000
Lumber for Aeroplanes:	Feet
Spruce	16,289,227
Fir	6,801,324
Other Lumber:	
Douglas fir	11,530,315
Pine, various kinds and qualities	10,360,566
Spruce	8,345,675
Workers engaged in war contracts	200,000 to 300,000
Persons handling and transporting stores, about	50,000
Contractors in Canada for munitions, about	1,000

In the report issued by the Imperial War Cabinet for the year 1917, Canada's services to the empire in the production of munitions are referred to as follows:

Canada's contribution during the last year had been very striking. Fifteen per cent of the total expenditure of the Ministry of Munitions in the last six months of the year was incurred in that country. She has manufactured nearly every type of shell from the 18-pounder to the 9.2-inch. In the case of the 18-pounder no less than 55 per cent of the output of shrapnel shells in the last six months came from Canada, and most of these were complete rounds of ammunition which went direct to France. Canada also contributed 42 per cent of the total 4.5-inch shells, 27 per cent of the 6-inch shells, 20 per cent of the 60-pounder H. E. shells, 15 per cent of the 8-inch and 16 per cent of the 9.2-inch.

FOOD CONTROL

The office of Food Controller was created in Canada in June, 1917. In February, 1918, the powers and duties of the controller were vested in the Canada Food Board, which was then established.

The function of the food board was, generally, to secure the largest possible supply of food to the fighting forces of the Allies

and to the civil population in Europe by means of increased production and conservation of food in Canada.

Increased Production.—Early in 1918 steps were taken to add to the production of Canadian farms. Over 1,100 farm tractors were bought and resold to farmers at cost price.

The following figures show the increase of the acreage of the principal crops:

	1917-Acres	1918-Acres
Wheat	14,755,850	17,353,902
Oats	13,313,400	14,790,336
Barley	2,392,200	3,153,811
Rye	211,880	555,294
Mixed grains	497,326	1,068,120

These were much larger than the areas of the crops before the war.

The total value of all field crops in 1917 was $1,144,136,450, and in 1918, $1,337,350,870, an increase of 16.8 per cent. Both these values were higher than those of any preceding year.

The following are the quantities of wheat, flour and oatmeal exported from Canada between August 1, 1917, and July 31, 1918:

	Bushels
Wheat	118,579,601
Flour	11,257,942
Oatmeal	372,302

VOLUNTARY WAR ORGANIZATIONS

General Statistics.—The following is a summary of gifts for various war purposes from the Federal and Provincial Governments, from municipalities, societies, universities, business houses and other corporations, and from private individuals:

Canadian Patriotic Fund (to November 30, 1918)	$42,864,207
Manitoba Patriotic Fund (to March 31, 1918)	3,957,042
Canadian Red Cross Society (to December 7, 1918):	
Contribution in cash	7,771,083
Gifts in supplies (estimated)	13,500,000
British Red Cross Society (to December 31, 1917)	6,100,000
Belgian Relief Fund (to December 19, 1918):	
Contributions in cash	1,642,104
Gifts in supplies (estimated)	1,512,800

Contributions from Canada to Y. M. C. A. for Military Work	$4,574,821
Gifts from Dominion and Provincial Governments to Government of United Kingdom	5,469,319
To the above should be added miscellaneous gifts from various sources for many objects. These include contributions for the equipment and maintenance of hospitals overseas and in Canada, to the French, Serbian and Polish Relief Funds, to numerous associations for the supply of field comforts to troops overseas and for the care of returned soldiers. These contributions, together with other gifts for various patriotic purposes, on a conservative estimate amount to	8,000,000
Total	$95,391,376
The approximate total of voluntary contributions from Canada for war purposes is, therefore, over	95,000,000

Of the various war organizations working in Canada, or amongst Canadian troops overseas, the most extensive in their operations are the Canadian Patriotic Fund, the Canadian Red Cross Society, and the Military Branch of the Y. M. C. A.

Canadian Patriotic Fund.—The Canadian Patriotic Fund is a national organization (covering all the provinces except Manitoba, which for this purpose is organized separately), the object of which is to give assistance where necessary to the dependent relatives, in Canada, of allied soldiers and sailors on active service in the present war. The fund is administered locally through committees serving gratuitously. The committees act on general instructions from headquarters, and are given discretionary powers as regards the approval of applications and the amount of grants. The funds are raised by voluntary contribution. Since June, 1916, the expenditure in relief work of the Canadian Patriotic Fund has averaged about $900,000 a month. This sum has covered the assistance of from 50,000 to 60,000 families. The total has reached nearly $43,000,000.

Canadian Red Cross Society.—The Canadian Red Cross Society is organized in eight provincial and about 1,200 local branches. Its object is to furnish aid to sick and wounded soldiers as an auxiliary to the Army Medical Corps. The more important activities of the society include the supply of equipment for Canadian military hospitals, grants to British and other hospitals, care

of Canadian prisoners of war, and the collection and shipment of supplies of various kinds, including clothing for the refugees being repatriated in the devastated areas of Europe. The society has collected $7,771,083 in money and gifts to the value of more than $13,500,000.

Y. M. C. A.—The Military Branch of the Y. M. C. A. carries on its work with the troops overseas in France and Germany, and in seventy-six centres in England. These include regular camps and units, base camps, convalescent camps and hospitals. In Canada there are thirty-eight centres of operation, including camps, barracks, Red Triangle Clubs, hospitals, naval stations and troop trains. There were in 1917, 133 secretaries on the overseas staff with honorary commission in the C. E. F. Of these, fifty received their pay and allowances from the Y. M. C. A., while the remainder were paid by the Government. In Canada, one hundred civilian secretaries are employed for military purposes by the association. More than $4,500,000 has been contributed for this work.

WOMEN'S WORK

Statistics, however complete, can give only an imperfect impression of the services which Canadian women have rendered during the war. The following are a few facts which bear upon this subject:

Nursing.—Women to the number of 2,400 have gone overseas in the C. E. F. and have served in England, France, Belgium, Egypt, Greece and Russia. They were posted for duty in base hospitals, clearing stations, ambulance trains and hospital ships. There are also 527 on duty in Canada.

The casualties suffered by nurses were:

Killed in France (in bombing raids)	4
Killed at sea (by submarines)	14
Died of disease	15
Died in Canada	6

The number of V. A. D.'s who have gone overseas is 342, who have served in hospitals in England and France.

The following decorations have been awarded to nursing sisters:

Military medal	4
Royal Red Cross, First Class	43
Royal Red Cross, Second Class	149

Many hundreds of Canadian women are serving in Canada as volunteer hospital probationers in military hospitals and in England under the Joint War Committee's Women's V. A. D. Department.

More than 1,000 women have been employed by the Royal Air Force in Canada on a wide range of duties, including motor transport work.

Between 5,000 and 6,000 women were employed in the Civil Service for the most part on work created by the war.

About 75,000 women gave their services to assist in the compilation of the National Register in June, 1918.

Women's Organizations.—Women's clubs and societies all through the country since the beginning of the war have very generally diverted their energies to special war work, and have been of the greatest service.

Women's War Conference.—A conference of about seventy-five representative women from all provinces of the dominion was called at Ottawa in February, 1918, on the invitation of the War Committee of the Cabinet. Those invited were asked to give special consideration to the relation of women to such matters as increased agricultural production, commercial and industrial occupations, the compilation of the National Register and the conservation of food.

The conference served a very useful purpose, particularly in the increased measure of co-operation which it made possible between the Government and women's organizations throughout the country.

Women's Franchise.—Reference should be made to the fact that by an Act of Parliament, 1918, Canadian women have received the Federal electoral franchise on the same basis as men.

WAR LIQUOR REGULATIONS

During 1917 and 1918 the Federal Government issued a series of regulations controlling the liquor traffic for the purpose of preventing waste, and for the promotion of thrift, the conservation of financial resources, and the increase of national efficiency.

In November, 1917, it was forbidden by the Dominion Government, as a war measure, to use foodstuffs in the distillation of liquors. In the same month the quantity of malt manufactured, and the

quality of barley used in the manufacture of malt were both limited in the interest of food conservation.

Successive Orders in Council under the War Measures Act, 1914, were passed in December, 1917, and January, 1918, which prohibited the importation of intoxicating liquor into the dominion.

At the end of 1916 the sale of intoxicating liquor was prohibited by provincial statutes in all the provinces save Quebec. In this province a prohibition measure has been passed which is to come into effect on the 1st of May, 1919.

In order to bring about national prohibition it was necessary for the Federal Government to supplement provincial laws and prevent both the manufacture of intoxicating liquor in any province of the dominion and the traffic in this commodity between the provinces. This was done by an Order in Council passed in March, 1918, under the special powers conferred by the War Measures Act.

REHABILITATION OF RETURNED SOLDIERS

In February, 1918, a new Department of State was created, to be known as the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment.

The department has arranged, since the date of the armistice, for the distribution of questionnaire cards among the Canadian overseas forces, in order to ascertain the desires of the men with reference to the district to which they wish to be returned and the kind of work that they wish to take up.

Representatives of the departments overseas keep the soldiers informed as to the methods adopted in Canada to assist them back to civil life. In Canada, public education is being undertaken in order that employers and the public generally will know what is expected of them in the successful carrying out of the civil absorption of the 300,000 or 400,000 soldiers.

The Employment Scheme.—For the men who have not their old positions awaiting them, the Government is conducting a survey of industries, that is to say, employers are being asked to state periodically what vacancies exist in their organizations.

The Government has also made arrangements to connect the soldiers with vacant positions. There are provided, in addition to employment bureaus, several other public employment offices through which a man can secure work without paying any fee. These offices are being co-ordinated into one system under

the guidance of the Repatriation Committee, and others will be established, so that in each military dispersal centre and in every town of 10,000 population or more, there will be a demobilization employment office.

Retraining.—Every man discharged from the Canadian Expeditionary Force who has received a disability which prevents him from following his previous occupation in civil life, is entitled to retraining, free of charge, in some trade or profession of his own choice in which his disability will not prove a handicap. During such period of retraining the Government provides for the maintenance of his family or dependents.

Retraining is carried on in universities, colleges, technical and agricultural schools throughout the dominion, with special equipment in six centres and practical training, under actual shop conditions in the plants of leading manufacturers, is given in conjunction with the theoretical work of the classes. At the end of September, 1918, men were being retrained in not less than 158 occupations.

Medical Care.—The care of invalided soldiers is divided roughly into two stages: (1) Before discharge, by the Department of Militia and Defence, (2) after discharge, by the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment, for life if necessary. For this purpose the department has established a permanent medical service.

These two stages dovetail in connection with:

(*a*) *Occupational Therapy.*—The Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment supplies the personnel and equipment for this work while soldier patients are still in military hospitals, the work being under the direction of the medical officer in charge of the hospital.

(*b*) *Orthopædic Appliances.*—The Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment manufactures artificial limbs and furnishes major and minor orthopœdic appliances for all soldiers and ex-soldiers who are entitled to the same. These appliances are maintained in good repair during the life of the wearer. Orthopœdic fitting depots are maintained by the department for this purpose throughout the dominion.

The Medical Branch of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment has eight functions or duties:

1. Care of all cases of pulmonary tuberculosis. These cases

are discharged from the army, as soon as diagnosed, for treatment under the department.

2. The care of the permanently insane, epileptics, and feeble-minded.

3. The care of incurables and cases likely to be of long duration and requiring institutional treatment.

4. The manufacture and supply of orthopædic appliances, both major and minor.

5. The care of cases of recurrence of war disabilities.

6. Medical care of men undergoing industrial re-education.

7. Dental care of: (*a*) Ex-soldiers undergoing industrial re-education; (*b*) cases in institutions under the control of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment; (*c*) defects of the teeth due to war service.

8. The care of out-patients, who are divided into two classes. Those in the first class are unable to work and are in receipt of full pay and allowances, but no pension is paid while they are under treatment. Their income is approximately that which they received while on military service. Those in the second class report periodically at clinics for treatment, their pensions are continued to them and they receive allowances in accordance with the amount of time lost when reporting.

PENSIONS

The Board of Pension Commissioners for Canada was constituted by Order in Council, dated June 3, 1916. The commission employs 875 people. Of these 624 are employed at the head office in Ottawa and 191 at the district offices; 749 are either returned soldiers or the dependents of soldiers still on service.

Seventeen district offices have been established in the larger centres of the dominion and have been found of great advantage. They afford the discharged men convenient bureaus of information where the pensions' regulations can be explained personally to them by officials of the commission.

Medical examiners are on the staff of each district office. They re-examine pensioners for continuance of pension, and when necessary for the adjustment of all complaints regarding awards.

Visitors also form part of the staff of each district office. Their duties include the paying of at least one visit annually to every

pensioner. They investigate all cases of hardship and bring to the notice of the commission any circumstances in which the appointment of guardians or administrators might result in preventing an improper expenditure of pension moneys.

Disability Pensions.—Pensions are awarded, in accordance with the provisions of the regulations, for disabilities arising on service. These are divided into twenty classes according to the degree of the disability. In determining an award, no reference is made to occupation prior to enlistment. The disability is the decisive factor in every case.

No reduction in pension is made by reason of the pensioner's ability to earn or because of his actual earnings. He is pensioned because of the loss or lessening of a national function of the body. So long as this loss or lessening is present his pension continues. It is discontinued only when the disability has ceased.

Dependents' Pension.—Dependents, as designated by the regulations, of soldiers or sailors dying on service or as the result of injuries received or diseases contracted or aggravated on service are entitled to pensions.

The commission has exclusive jurisdiction over all matters relating to pensions' administration, as set forth in the regulations which are embodied in various Orders in Council. No appeals can be made from the decisions of the commission but every applicant may present his or her case to the commission either personally or by counsel.

The scale of Canadian war pensions is higher than that of any of the allied countries. It is as follows:

Private soldier for total disability	(per annum)	$600.00
Widows	(per annum)	480.00
Parents	(per annum)	480.00
Children	(per annum)	$96.00 to 144.00
Orphan children	(per annum)	192.00 to 288.00
Special allowances for helplessness, not to exceed	(per annum)	300.00

Pensions are being awarded at the rate of 137 daily.

The number and nature of and the annual liability for pensions, as at November 30, 1918, were as follows:

Disability pensions	38,767	$6,012,846
Dependents	14,719	7,433,346
Totals	53,486	$13,446,192

LAND SETTLEMENT

The Soldier Settlement Board.—The Soldier Settlement Act of 1917 makes provision for helping soldiers and sailors to settle on the land and for providing them with money with which to start farming. A Soldier Settlement Board has been established to administer the act. The board has its head office at Ottawa and branch offices at Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, Regina, Edmonton, and Victoria, with an Honorary Loan Advisory Board at each place. The Farm Loan Board in New Brunswick, the Returned Soldiers' Commission in Nova Scotia and the Department of Agriculture in Prince Edward Island will represent the board in those provinces.

The privileges granted by the act may be given to any person who has served during the war in the Canadian naval or military forces, or in the forces of the United Kingdom, or of any of the British dominions or colonies, or is a British subject, living in Canada before the war, who has served in the forces of any of the Allies, or is the widow of any person described above, who died on active service.

The board may make loans for the purpose of acquiring land for farming, the erection of farm buildings and the purchase of stock, machinery and equipment. The amount of every loan is to be based on the value of the land or other security given. Every loan is to be a first mortgage or first charge on the land, is to bear interest at the rate of five per cent per annum and is to be repaid in equal annual instalments in not more than twenty years.

HOUSING

The Government has appropriated the sum of $25,000,000 for housing in Canada. The object of the Government is to provide houses for workingmen, particularly returned soldiers, at the actual cost of building and land acquired at a fair value, thus eliminating the profits of the speculator. The Government has appointed a committee of the cabinet to administer the loan.

The money will be lent direct to the Provincial Governments, all loans for housing purposes will be administered through them, and each province has to prepare a general scheme. Frame and veneered houses must not exceed $3,500 in cost, and brick, concrete, and stone houses $4,500 in cost. The money will be lent

for twenty years, or in special cases for thirty years. The Government is recommending that the sites and buildings should be properly planned, in accordance with modern principles of town planning and architecture. It is hoped that the Federal Branch of the Administration will be useful to the different provinces as a clearing house for comparative information regarding details of schemes, methods of standardization of dwellings, costs of construction, town planning procedure, methods of expropriating land for schemes and model plans of dwellings.

THE KHAKI UNIVERSITY

An educational plan has been established in connection with the Canadian forces under the name of the Department of Educational Services, popularly called the Khaki University

The Khaki University is under the control of the Department of Militia and is recognized by the Canadian universities. In addition to the funds supplied by the military authorities, a large amount of money has been put by the Y. M. C. A. at the disposal of the committee for carrying on the work.

The teaching is done almost entirely by voluntary instructors, chaplains and Y. M. C. A. secretaries, as well as officers, n. c. o.'s and men who had previously been in the teaching profession.

Many libraries have been established in the army areas in England and France, and over 12,000 men have registered in Khaki University classes in England.

The work which has been organized in the training centres in England and, as far as possible among the troops in France, will be carried on and developed even during the period of demobilization.

THE REPATRIATION COMMITTEE

A committee of the cabinet has been appointed and charged with the duty and responsibility of securing the closest co-operation of all the departments of the Government and of other agencies now existing, or to be created for the purpose of dealing with: (*a*) The absorption into civil life and occupation of discharged soldiers; (*b*) labour conditions which may arise from industrial dislocation and readjustment.

An office has been opened at Ottawa the staff of which is in

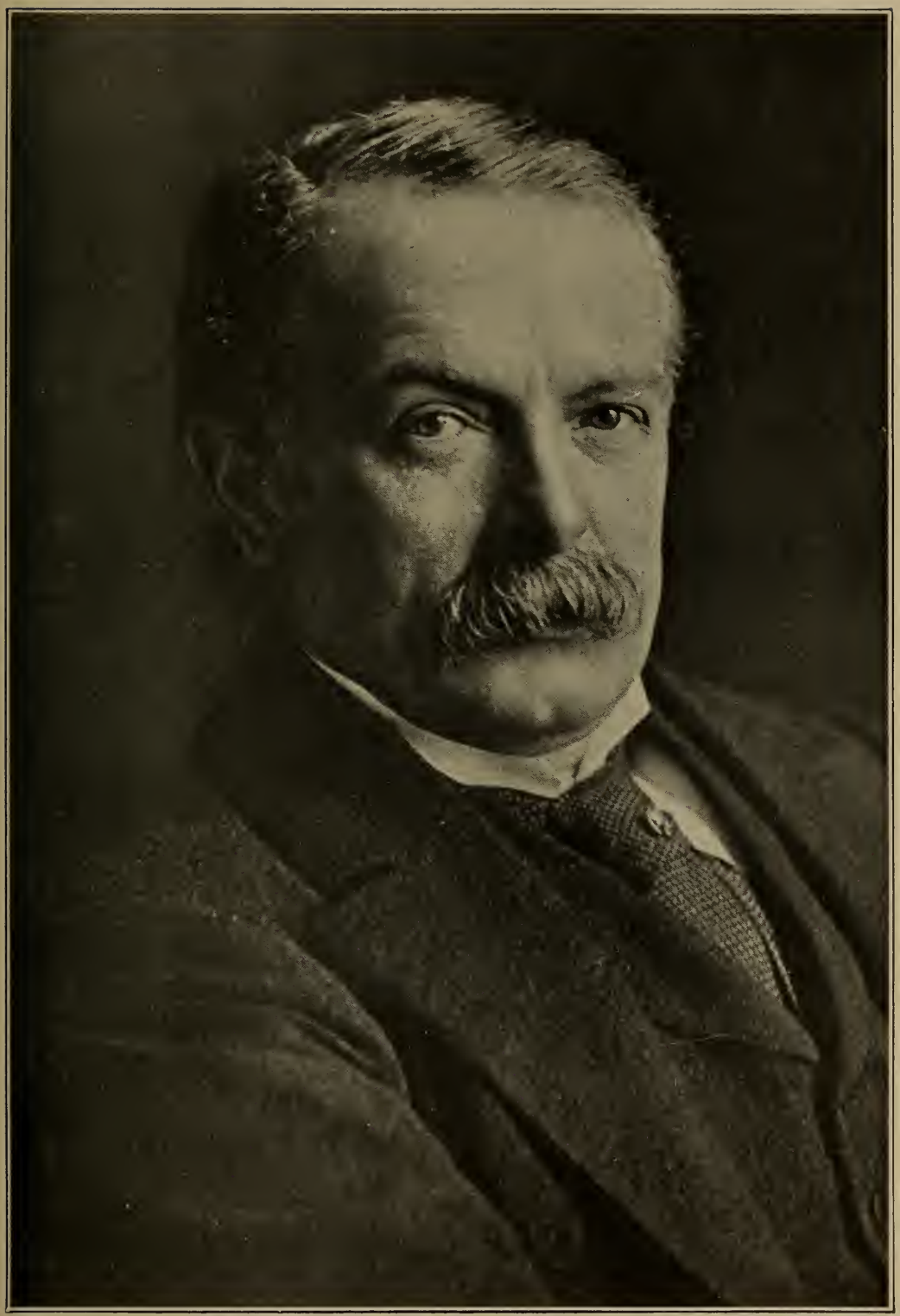
continual communication with Dominion and Provincial Government Departments, municipalities and voluntary organizations.

WAR ARCHIVES SURVEY

In April, 1917, the public archivist was empowered to make a survey of all the war activities of Canada, and prepare a complete key to all classes of public war records, and to all the departments, agencies, etc., in which they originate. This key will ensure that all Canada's records will be preserved and organized, ultimately, in such a way as to be available and intelligible for historical and other uses. In pursuance of this plan, a Canadian Special Mission visited Europe and obtained reports on all Canadian war work overseas. These reports, in fifteen large volumes, are deposited in the public archives at Ottawa.

THE WAR MUSEUM

An Imperial War Museum, with a Canadian section and a Canadian representative, is to be established in London. It will contain war trophies of every description. A similar collection has been secured for Canada.



THE RIGHT HONORABLE DAVID LLOYD GEORGE
British Premier, who headed the coalition cabinet which carried England through the war to victory.

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THE PEACE CONFERENCE AT THE QUAY D'ORSAY, PARIS

A full meeting of the delegates of the allied and associated nations for the consideration of the terms of the peace treaty with Germany and her allies. Under the clock are the seats of Minister Lloyd George of Great Britain, Premiers Clemenceau of France and Orlando of Italy and President Wilson of the United States.

CHAPTER XXXVI

The Peace Conference at Paris

After prolonged discussions of a preliminary nature, conducted by the leading statesmen of the five Great Powers—Britain, France, United States, Italy and Japan—the numerous details which had to be settled before the real peace congress could begin work were disposed of, and the Supreme Council of the Powers decided that the opening session should be held on January 18th. One of the chief problems that had to be solved was that of the representation of the various nations in the Peace Conference. Each one of the Entente Allies had its own special claims for recognition, some based on participation in the war and actual accomplishment therein, others on future political importance and responsibility in carrying out the decisions of the conference. The claims as to war accomplishment were given second place, and in apportioning the number of delegates it was decided to consider chiefly the population, size and importance of the nations concerned.

Great Britain, France, the United States, Italy and Japan each had five representatives at the full conferences. Brazil had three delegates; Belgium, Serbia and Greece two each, and the smaller Allies one each. Recognition of the great part played in the war by the various dominions of the British Empire was shown by the allotment of two delegates each to Canada, Australia, India and South Africa, and one to New Zealand. The representatives of the dominions and the smaller Allies attended the meetings only when matters directly affecting their welfare were under consideration.

The Peace Conference then got down to business and sat from that time onward until the Peace Terms were issued, with the exception of the period during which Premier Clemenceau, stricken down by an anarchist's bullet, was compelled to absent himself from all meetings. Premier Lloyd George was called home to take the lead in arranging a settlement between the turbulent labour elements on the one side, and the moderate trade unions, capital

WHERE THE ALLIED ARMIES WAITED THE RESULT OF THE PEACE CONFERENCE

The three black semi-circles are the Rhine bridgeheads occupied by the Allies in accordance with the Armistice of November 11, 1918. The Germans retired from the final battle line to the limits of the lightly shaded neutral zone east of the Rhine.

and industry in general on the other side, and President Wilson departed for Washington to personally lead the fight for the assent of the United States Senators to the draft constitution of the League of Nations.

The opening session of the great Peace Conference in Paris was chiefly a formal meeting to inaugurate the proceedings in a manner worthy of their importance. With due ceremony the President of France declared the Congress open, and the French Premier, Clemenceau, was then appointed president. A committee was nominated to enquire into the credentials of the various delegates, and the conference adjourned until the Supreme Council of the Great Powers could formulate concrete proposals on some of the many problems which must be settled by the peace plenipotentiaries.

As the formation of a League of Nations was regarded as one of the main preliminaries to the settlement of a just and lasting peace, little real progress toward the final treaty could be made by the conference before the constitution of the league had been accepted by the Great Powers. Upon the final conditions laid down in this covenant depended, to a great extent, the future naval and military policies of the nations concerned, if the Peace Conference was to take any serious steps towards a general disarmament.

The necessity of seeking some settlement with Russia before the subject of a League of Nations could be usefully discussed became instantly apparent. A proposal had already been made by Premier Lloyd George that representatives from the various parties in Russia should be invited to Paris to present their views to the conference. This suggestion was vigorously opposed by the French Foreign Minister, Pichon, who fiercely resented the idea of even thus far recognizing the existence of the Bolsheviki, and he refused, in the name of France, to have any discussion or dealings with them.

After devoting several meetings to the study of the problem, the Supreme Council of the Great Powers referred the matter to the special consideration of President Wilson, requesting him to formulate definite proposals to be submitted to the council. As a result the Entente Powers decided to invite representatives of all the different factions, political or military, in Russia to meet

envoys of the Powers in order that the views and ideas of the opposing parties might be thoroughly aired. With a proper understanding of the facts of the case obtained in this manner, the Allies hoped to formulate some scheme which would be acceptable to the majority of Russians, and in this way help them to a peaceful settlement of their troubles. The Allies were careful to state that their intentions were purely friendly, that they did not wish to exploit Russia in any way, and that they recognized the revolution without reservation. The meeting with the Russians was called for February 15th, but did not materialize.

At the second plenary sitting of the Peace Conference, on January 25th, the principal business was the discussion of the draft preliminary resolutions for the League of Nations. The resolutions, which were proposed by President Wilson, seconded by Mr. Lloyd George, and passed without change, are of such historic importance that we reproduce them in full:

The conference having considered the proposals for the creation of a League of Nations, resolving that:

A—It is essential to the maintenance of the world settlement which the associated nations are now met to establish that a League of Nations be created to promote international co-operation to ensure the fulfilment of expected international obligations and to provide safeguards against war.

B—This league should be treated as an integral part of the general treaty of peace and should be open to every civilized nation which can be relied on to promote its object.

C—The members of the league should periodically meet in international conference, and should have a permanent organization and secretariat to carry on the business of the league in the intervals between the conferences—the Conference, therefore, appoints a committee representative of the associated governments to work out the details of the constitution and functions of the league.

Many controversial matters came before the Conference at different times. The Presidents of the United States and France did not always see eye to eye, for France through bitter experience demanded terms that would make her free from invasion by Germany forever, while President Wilson had in mind the larger object of making all war impossible in the future.

ASPIRATIONS OF THE NATIONS

The desires of the allied and neutral nations often overlapped and it was the difficult task of the Peace Conference to adjust

them. The chief demands and aspirations might be briefly expressed as follows:

France wanted Alsace-Lorraine, the basin of the Sarre River, no military works to be built along the left bank of the Rhine, some sort of guardianship of Syria and adequate reparation for damage done.

Great Britain wanted a Society of Nations established, international freedom of transit by railroads and waterways, mandatory powers over German islands south of the equator, German

How Greece Hoped to Expand

Showing territory claimed by Greece, and also the proposed Byzantine neutral state.

Southwest Africa, German East Africa, parts of Arabia and Mesopotamia and her share of the pooled indemnities.

Italy wanted the Trentino to the Bremer Pass, Trieste, Istria, Fiume, Zaron, Sebentico; the larger part of the Dalmatian Islands; Aviona and its hinterland, certain islands in the Ægean and a protectorate over Albania.

Rumania wanted part of Russian Bessarabia, Southern Dobrudja and the mouth of the Danube; also Bukowina, Transylvania and part of Banat. As Serbia also wanted the latter, French troops were moved in between the two hostile armies.

Serbia wanted Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatia. Montenegro had already united with Serbia but Serbia and Italy's claims clashed sharply in regard to Fiume, and the seaboard.

Greece desired Epirus, Thrace, the shores of the Bosporus and the Dardanelles placed under international control. She also put forward certain claims to Smyrna and Turkish islands in the eastern Mediterranean.

Bulgaria, though beaten, hoped to receive extensions of her frontiers in southern Macedonia, along the Ægean coast and in Thrace.

Czecho-Slovakia, the new state comprising the old kingdom of

How Belgium Hoped to Expand

The Belgians claimed that the Netherlands should renounce its monopoly of the Scheldt.

Bohemia, Moravia and the Slovak region of northern Hungary had already been incorporated, but numerous conflicts with surrounding peoples had occurred. It wanted part of German Saxony, German Silesia, a frontage on the Danube and a corridor to the Adriatic.

Poland wished to obtain eastern Galicia, Cholm and Danzig.

Belgium asked for fifteen billion francs as the first lien on German assets, the return of machinery and tools stolen, the left bank of the Scheldt and total reparation.

Japan stated she would hand back Tsing-Tau. She desired to retain the German isles north of the equator and evidently wished

to obtain certain former German concessions on the Shantung Peninsula. She was also willing to aid in restoring order in Russia.

China wanted to be guaranteed freedom from foreign aggression, the gradual abolition of "Consular rights," and the return of Kiau-Chau.

Switzerland desired an outlet to the sea by making the Rhine a neutral stream.

Denmark wished to annex that part of northern Schleswig inhabited by Danes.

It may at once be seen that the satisfactory adjustment of these demands meant a rearrangement of the map of Europe. Furthermore, many of the claims conflicted; in some cases, particularly in the Balkans, the satisfactory settlement of the demand of one nation would outrage the national sentiment of another. On several occasions the situation at the Peace Conference became so acute that delegates of certain countries withdrew in protest. Great difficulties also occurred through the public becoming agitated over questions which had been more or less misrepresented by newspaper correspondents. The press of different countries wielded all possible influence to force discussion on certain debatable matter.

THE WITHDRAWAL OF ITALY

Many and serious were the differences of opinion and conflicts of ambitions which had to be smoothed over or settled by the leaders of the peace delegates at Paris, but a breach more serious than all former ones was encountered, of such gravity as to threaten the withdrawal of one of the five great powers from the deliberations. Italy was the disaffected party, and the trouble arose over her insistence on her rights to the port of Fiume, on the eastern shores of the Adriatic, while the other Allies were not willing that she should occupy that seaport.

Whether as spokesman for Britain and France or not, President Wilson took the lead in opposing Italy's claim, and for several days the Italian delegates refrained from attending the councils of the Big Four.

Italy based her claims on a secret agreement made with Britain and France, prior to her entering the war, known as the Pact of London, but her two Allies read the treaty as giving Fiume

THE CONTRASTING COAST-LINES OF THE ADRIATIC

This map illustrates the contrast between the almost harbourless Adriatic coast of Italy and the opposite eastern coast with its numerous deep-water, well-sheltered ports. It also indicates the projection of the shore of Southern Albania to within 45 miles of the Italian cape of Otranto, whereby a hostile power holding Valona (Avlona), could close the Adriatic to Italian shipping. The map further shows in tint the eastern possessions of Venice down to 1798.

to Croatia, so they were unable to support Italy's contention. President Wilson took the stand that as the United States did not become a party to this pact she was in no way bound by it, while she was certainly called to stand by the principles enunciated by the President in his famous fourteen points as principles of peace. It was contrary to those principles to allow Italy to annex Fiume on the pretense that she needed it to secure herself against Austrian naval aggression, when all the time there were countries on that side of the Adriatic who found Fiume their sole outlet to the Adriatic and Mediterranean.

The President brought matters to a head by taking the unusual and original course of publishing a résumé of the whole question, clearly stating his reasons for opposing Italy's claims, and declaring his determination to abide by his principles. The Italian delegates received their first intimation of the publication of this statement when they read it in the Paris newspapers, and they immediately withdrew from the Peace Conference.

Lloyd George and Clemenceau strained every nerve to prevent an actual breach and though public feeling ran very high in Rome and throughout Italy in support of Premier Orlando, who, with Baron Sonnino, had returned to Italy, the matter, after a great deal of difficulty, was adjusted and the Italian representatives returned to the peace table.

Japan's claims in China, particularly as to her rights in the Shantung peninsula, at one time seemed to threaten to bring about a block in the proceedings similar to that with the Italians. A compromise was reached allowing Japan to temporarily retain her rights in the disputed territory, the decision as to permanent ownership being postponed until after the larger question of the world's peace had been settled and signed.

Belgium also withdrew her delegates in protest on one occasion.

The task of the representatives of the Allies of preparing a treaty that would safeguard all the interests of the Allies and neutral powers, and render the German nation incapable of again waging war was truly a Herculean one. For the first time in the carrying out of such a task everything was done in public; it was the first time that secrecy had not prevailed; that ambassadors had played little or no part; that the cards were all on the table. The world would have no more of secret diplomacy and it said so

in no uncertain way. Consequently since there was to be a really earnest attempt to evolve a satisfactory settlement that would prevent future wars the greatest men of every country were the representatives appointed to the great task.

To the waiting nations the time of discussing and preparing the Peace Treaty seemed long and they frequently became impatient. Probably no one will ever explain the task and its attendant difficulties better than Mr. Lloyd George to a House of Parliament that had to a considerable extent lost its patience and become critical. Among other things the British Premier said:

"We want peace. We want a peace that is just, but not vindictive. We want peace, a stern peace, because the occasion demands it, the crime demands it; but its severity must be designed not to gratify vengeance, but to vindicate justice. Every clause in the terms must be justified on that ground.

"Above all, we want to prevent a repetition of the horrors of the big war by making the wrongdoer repair the wrongs and losses which he has inflicted by his wanton aggression; by punishing each individual who is responsible, and by depriving the nations, which menaced the peace of Europe for half a century with flourishing the sword, of their weapons. I stand by my pledges by avoiding a condition which, by creating a legitimate sense of wrong, would excite national pride to endlessly seek opportunities for redress. The most permanent security of all is the power of the nations of the earth federated with a firm purpose of maintaining peace."

CHAPTER XXXVII

The Treaty of Peace and League of Nations

Two special trains conveyed the German peace delegates and their corps of assistants and reporters to Versailles where three hotels were placed at their disposal. They were empowered to sign the Peace Treaty if it contained nothing but what was covered by Wilson's fourteen points. If in doubt they had to return to Weimar and consult the Government.

The German delegates were headed by Count von Brockdorff-Rantzau, the German Foreign Minister. When received by Premier Clemenceau, who stood, the Count sat down and read a long speech in which he accused the Allies of causing thousands of deaths through starvation by continuing the blockade. Copies of the peace terms were then submitted to the German delegates for consideration.

"We are under no illusion as to the extent of our defeat and the degree of our want of power," said Count Brockdorff-Rantzau, when he received the peace terms on the fourth anniversary of the sinking of the *Lusitania*.

The allied representatives refused to hold any discussion with the German delegates, stating that all representations must be put in writing. The treatment was exactly the same as that which the Germans had extended to Rumanians, who had been given four days to sign. From Germany, which had been allowed fifteen days to consider the terms and sign, came a long-sustained chorus of protests against the conditions imposed by the Peace Treaty. Chancellor Scheidemann, in the German Assembly, described the treaty as a murderous scheme entirely unacceptable. Everywhere agents endeavored to stir up public opinion against the peace terms and raise a popular outcry, but without any great success.

In the fifteen-day interval volumes of notes of protest were sent by Count von Brockdorff-Rantzau, many of which were considered to be objections raised as a matter of form.

When these had been considered, on the expiry of the time

period the German delegates were notified of the date on which their signatures were to be placed on the treaty.

The great fear in France and Great Britain that there would

THE PROBLEMS OF PEACE

Map of Europe, with different shadings to indicate the claims of the various nations represented at the peace conference

be a "soft" peace was dissipated by the publishing of the peace terms. Everywhere throughout the United States, Great Britain

and France it was recognized that Germany had been reduced to a third-class power, that the world had been freed for all time from the terror of German imperialism and that the German people themselves were freed from the obsessions that had brought ruin upon them. Their faith in militarism and the superman fallacy was destroyed. The nation which in its pride had sought to dominate the world was reduced to a country without an army, without a navy, with an enormous debt and without prestige in international politics.

It was recognized that, taken in connection with the League of Nations, the German fate would act as a powerful deterrent to the rest of the world, for in five years the greatest military nation on earth had been rendered absolutely impotent. The terms which made the period of enlistment in the German army twelve years and prevented the discharge of more than five per cent of the force in any one year were designed to make the army unpopular as a profession and prevent any large number of civilians being trained as soldiers.

There was no maudlin sentiment about the hardness of the terms. According to the published plans of Germany in 1915–19 she intended to annex Belgium and the north of France from Verdun to Boulogne, deprive France of her colonies, break up the British Empire and demand large indemnities from the United States for supplying arms and munitions to the Allies.

Germany was not dismembered by the Allies, and though she lost her colonies, little purely German territory was alienated. She was made to pay as much as possible of the damages she had inflicted and properly so. It was a just treaty and because it was just it had to be harsh. The world tribunal found the German nation to be an outlaw; it had rebelled against civilization, wrecked Europe and as such it had to be sequestered and pay the price of outlawry.

The German people naturally, having been educated in the belief that they were the superior race and in certain principles, have as yet shown little change of heart. They have not admitted their guilt and have shown little signs of remorse. German soldiers returning from the war were showered with gifts and acclaimed as victorious troops. The attitude of the German people was resentful and bitter.

The German representatives upheld the spectre of Bolshevism in Germany before the Peace Conference in an effort to frighten it. They protested that they would not sign the treaty. Some said, like Walter Rathenau in Die Zunkunft, that the German people were innocent of the wrong they had committed in a childish spirit of obedience. Others claimed that it was not peace but revenge, and most of them claimed that the treaty was in utter defiance of President Wilson's fourteen points.

Meanwhile, Marshal Foch proceeded to his armies of occupation on the Rhine prepared to advance in case of necessity.

SUMMARY OF PEACE TREATY

The Treaty of Peace between the twenty-seven allied and associated powers, on the one hand, and Germany, on the other, was handed to the German plenipotentiaries at Versailles on Wednesday, May 7, 1919, and signed on Saturday, June 28.

Preamble—The preamble names as parties of the one part the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, described as the principal allied and associated powers, and Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjas, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Serb-Croat and Slovene State, Siam, Czecho-Slovakia and Uruguay, who, with the five above, are described as the allied and associated powers; and of the other part, Germany.

It states that: Bearing in mind that on the request of the Imperial German Government an armistice was granted on November 11, 1918, to Germany by the principal allied and associated powers, in order that a treaty of peace might be concluded with her, and the allied and associated powers being equally desirous that the war in which they were successively involved, directly or indirectly, and which originated in the declaration of war by Austria-Hungary on July 28, 1914, against Serbia; the declaration of war by Germany against Russia on August 1, 1914, and against France on August 3, 1914, and in the invasion of Belgium, should be replaced by a firm, just, and durable peace, the plenipotentiaries having communicated their full powers found in good and due form have agreed as follows:

From the coming into force of the present treaty the state of war will terminate. From the moment, and subject to the pro-

visions of this treaty, official relations with Germany, and with any of the German states, will be resumed by the allied and associated powers.

ALSACE RESTORED TO FRANCE

Germany by the terms of the treaty restores Alsace-Lorraine to France, accepts the internationalization of the Saar Basin temporarily, and of Dantzig permanently; agrees to territorial changes towards Belgium and Denmark and in East Prussia, cedes most of Upper Silesia to Poland, and renounces in favour of the allies all her rights and titles over her oversea possessions. She also recognizes the total independence of Austria, Czecho-Slovakia and Poland.

Her army is reduced to two hundred thousand men, including officers, and to be still further reduced to one hundred thousand by March 31, 1920; conscription within her territories is abolished, all forts fifty kilometres east of the Rhine razed, and all importation, exportation and nearly all production of war materials stopped.

Allied occupation of parts of Germany will continue till reparation is made, but will be reduced at the end of each three-year period if Germany is fulfilling her obligations.

Any violation by Germany of the conditions as to the zone fifty kilometres east of the Rhine will be regarded as an act of war.

The German navy is reduced to six battleships, six light cruisers and twelve torpedo-boats, without submarines, and a personnel of not over fifteen thousand. All other vessels must be surrendered or destroyed.

Germany is forbidden to build forts controlling the Baltic, must demolish Helgoland, open the Kiel Canal to all nations, and surrender her fourteen submarine cables. She may have no military or naval air forces except one hundred unarmed seaplanes until October, to detect mines, and may not manufacture aviation material for six months.

She agrees to return to the 1914 most favored nation tariffs, without discrimination of any sort; to allow allied and associated nations freedom of transit through her territories, and to accept highly detailed provisions as to pre-war debts, unfair competition, internationalization of roads and rivers, and other economic and financial clauses.

SHANTUNG

Germany cedes to Japan all rights, titles and privileges, notably as to Kiaochow, and the railroads, mines and cables acquired by her treaty with China of March sixth, eighteen ninety-seven, and other agreements as to Shantung. All German rights to the railroad from Tsingtao to Tsinaufu, including all facilities and mining rights and rights of exploitation, pass equally to Japan, and the cables from Tsingtao to Shanghai and Chefoo, the cables free of all charges. All German state property, movable and immovable, in Kiaochow is acquired by Japan free of all charges.

GERMANY WILL PAY FOR ILLEGAL WARFARE

Germany accepts full responsibility for all damages caused to allied and associated governments and nations, agrees specially to reimburse all civilian damages, beginning with an immediate payment of 20,000,000,000 marks, later payments to be secured by bonds to be issued at the discretion of the Reparation Commission.

Germany is to pay shipping damage, on a ton for ton basis, by cession of a large part of her merchant, coasting and river fleets, and by new construction and to devote her economic resources to the rebuilding of the devastated regions.

A great number of international bodies of different kinds and for different purposes are created, some under the League of Nations, and some to execute the Peace Treaty. Among the former is the commission to govern the Saar Basin till a plebiscite is held fifteen years hence, the high commission of Dantzig, which is created into a free city under the league, and various commissions for plebiscites in Eupen and Malmédy, Schleswig and East Prussia.

Among those to carry out the Peace Treaty are the repatriations, military, naval, air, financial and economic commissions, the international high court, and military tribunals to fix responsibilities, and a series of bodies for the control of international rivers.

GERMANY'S NEW FRONTIERS

Concerning new frontiers, the inhabitants of Schleswig are to be consulted as to whether or not they wish to remain German or to return to Denmark.

Poland will have a corridor running down the Vistula to Danzig, which will be turned into a free city.

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FORWARD INTO GERMANY

The Canadian Corps Commander, Sir Arthur Currie, takes the salute of his brave soldiers as they cross the bridge over the Rhine at Bonn.

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THE RETURN OF THE VICTORS

The 14th Battalion C.E.F., of Montreal, returned home Sunday, April 19, 1919, after going through a succession of battles from February, 1915, beginning with Neuve Chapelle and ending with Cambrai. The regiment is seen passing Phillips Square, on the way to demobilization barracks, marching with fixed bayonets, tantamount to receiving the freedom of the city.

As compensation for Germany's willful destruction of the coal mines in Northern France, the Saar Valley coal mines become the property of the French Government, but the government of the district will be carried on by a committee of five, appointed by the League of Nations, one a Frenchman, one native inhabitant and the remaining three selected from countries other than France and Germany. After fifteen years the inhabitants shall decide their future by a plebiscite.

One or two of the Walloon-speaking regions in Germany on the Belgian frontier pass to Belgium.

The Brest-Litovsk Treaty, made by Germany with Russia, and others with Rumania, are considered as abrogated.

Other clauses arraign the former Kaiser not for an offence against criminal law, but "for a supreme offence against international morality and the sanctity of treaties."

The tribunal to try him is to be composed of five judges, one each from United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan.

The Saar Coal Fields

Holland is to be asked to surrender the Kaiser. The Germans are also to hand over "all persons accused of having committed any act in violation of the laws and customs of war who are specified, either by name or by rank in the office or employment which they held under German authorities."

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Part One of the treaty of peace sets forth the covenant of the league of nations with this preamble:

"The high contracting parties, in order to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war, by the prescription of open, just and honourable relations between nations, by the firm establishment of the understandings of inter-

national law as the actual rule of conduct among governments, and by the maintenance of justice and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another, agree to this covenant of the League of Nations."

The original members of the league are the signatories of the treaty, including Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand and India. States invited to accede to the covenant were: Argentine, Chili, Colombia, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, Paraguay, Persia, Salvador, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and Venezuela. Other states may be added on a two-thirds vote of the Assembly. Any member of the league may, after two years' notice of intention, withdraw from the league provided all its international obligations have been fulfilled.

Following are the chief provisions of the League of Nations:

Not more than three delegates from each nation, an executive council, and one vote for each power.

Council to consist of United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan and four small powers.

Council meets at least once a year.

Wilson to summon the first peace league meeting.

Only self-governing countries admitted to the league.

Reduction of armament to lowest point consistent with safety and enforcement of international obligations.

Frank interchange of military information.

Permanent military and naval commission.

Manufacture of munitions by private enterprises declared open to grave objections.

League undertakes to respect and preserve against external aggression, the territorial integrity and political independence of its members.

No war declaration until three months after arbitration.

Permanent arbitration court.

A war, or threat of war, whether affecting members or not, is declared a matter of concern to the league which reserves right of action.

Should any member of league break or disregard its promises to adhere to arbitration it will be considered an act of war against all members of the league, which undertakes a severance of all trade and financial relations.

Nothing in the covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements, such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace.

Colonies taken from Germany, and not yet able to stand alone should be governed by mandate. Other countries can be recognized provisionally as independent.

Permanent bureau of labor to be organized to endeavor to secure humane conditions for workers in their own and other countries.

OPPOSITION TO THE LEAGUE

When President Wilson, with all the conviction of his nature, brought forward the plan for a League of Nations, the world immediately divided itself into a number of classes. All agreed that something must be done to limit armaments and future wars. But to many the Wilson programme was nebulous and impracticable. The French people, particularly, wanted definite guarantees of protection from future aggression on the part of Germany or any other nation. The British were favorable to the theory and were willing to reduce armaments but not the navy. The United States feared further entanglements in European quarrels which had no bearing whatever on the United States and also dreaded interference with the Monroe Doctrine.

The original plan was brought before a committee who worked upon it for some weeks. It was then submitted to the Peace Conference, discussed and modified, particularly by Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. Balfour, who made suggestions to make it more practicable and workable. Meanwhile the whole world was talking about the League of Nations' idea and the more people discussed it the more favorably they viewed it.

"Self-determination" seemed at first sight a simple enough problem but a little thought will show that it is not so simple. For instance, the South wished to separate from the North, in the United States, and govern itself. The war which resulted was fought directly against the right of "self-determination" of the South to govern itself in its own way.

In Europe the difficulties surrounding this question appeared almost unsurmountable. There was the question of "self-determina-

tion" of the peoples included in Russia, in Poland, in Austria-Hungary and in the Balkans, to go no further. The setting up of a large number of small republics in Europe would keep the rest of the world on edge for many years to come with their petty squabbles.

The learned and cautious Oxford Professor, Gilbert Murray, in a historical and very clearly argued article, reminds us that: "War does not always arise from mere wickedness or folly. It sometimes arises from mere growth and movement. Humanity will not stand still. One people grows while another declines. One naturally expands in a particular direction and finds that thereby it is crossing the path of another." He cites the unification of Italy, the independence of the United States, the release of Balkan nations from the Turks as proofs of that thesis.

But he notes that: "Throughout the nineteenth century and up to 1914 an ever-increasing number of international difficulties were settled without war. The method was diplomatic conference and, when that failed, arbitration. In 1914 special arbitration treaties already existed between most of the Western nations, except Germany; and not only the treaties, but the spirit of fair dealing and 'cordial understanding' which had grown up between Great Britain and most of the other Powers, made the final cessation of war between civilized states a goal by no means unattainable. It only needed the further spread of the 'cordial understanding' to include Germany and Austria, and so achieve that 'bringing together of the two great groups' which was the main purpose of Sir Edward Grey's policy."

And he continues: "The hope is that the League will be so strong and general that to stand out of it will be a marked action. The Power that stands out will thereby be confessing that it means still, in spite of all that the world has suffered, to cleave to war and make its fortune by war. Let us hope there may be no such Power. But if there is, its existence will not wreck the whole League; it will perhaps bind it the more together, as law-abiding settlers stand together against a robber or pirate."

Brigadier-General Tyrrel, a British military historian, writes that his fear is that: "A League of Nations with only a general purpose is subject to the principle that what is everybody's business is nobody's business, as was proved in the case of Armenia and the

Congo Free State. In the former case Russia had constituted herself the protector of Armenia by the Treaty of San Stefano; but Lord Beaconsfield succeeded in substituting for this arrangement the protection of Armenian interests by concert of all the Great Powers of Europe, which was formally ratified in the Treaty of Berlin.

"Great Britain was the only Power which attempted to carry out this provision of the treaty, and her half-hearted and ineffectual attempts only aggravated the sufferings of the Armenians under Turkish rule.

"In the second case the Congo Free State was created by the concert of European Powers to develop civilization in Central Africa, and it was confided to the tender mercies of King Leopold of Belgium, who violated every condition under which it had been entrusted to him and turned it into a slave state, worked for the pecuniary benefit of himself and other Belgian capitalists. Not a single government could be brought to interfere to enforce the conditions of the treaty which they had put their seals to.

"When Austria-Hungary violated the provisions of that same treaty in 1909 by her annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Germany supported her illegal act, and no other Power cared or dared to call her to account. Nations are selfish, like individuals, and may be trusted always to pursue their own interests instead of the common good, and a League of Nations to prevent war might perhaps result in providing causes for it."

Says Viscount, formerly Sir Edward Grey: "President Wilson and his country have had in this matter the great advantage of having been for more than two years and a half, before April, 1917, able to observe the war as neutrals, free from the intense anxiety and effort that absorb all the thought and energy of belligerents. They were able not only to observe, but to reflect and to draw conclusions. One of the conclusions has been that, if the world of which they form an important part is to be saved from what they consider disaster, they must enter the war against Germany; another has been that, if national liberty and peace are to be secure in future, there must be a League of Nations to secure them.

"It must not be supposed from this that the governments of the Allies are less ready to draw, or have not already drawn, the

same conclusion from the experience of the war; but their countries have been at war all the time. They have been fighting, it is true, for the same ideal of national and human liberty as the United States, but fighting also for the immediate preservation of national existence in Europe, and all their thought and energy have been concentrated upon resistance to imminent peril. Nevertheless, in this country at any rate, the project of a League of Nations has met with widespread and cordial acceptance."

The Right Honourable Arthur Henderson, the secretary of the British Labor Party, speaking for labor men, declares that: "The establishment of a League of Nations will be a dramatic declaration of the fact that the peoples of the world form one family, and will show that they have learned that war is a family quarrel which humiliates every member of it, and destroys the happiness and prosperity of the whole. When the League is established, it will keep before the eyes of all nations the truth that peace is the greatest of human blessings, and that a dynasty or a government bent on war is the enemy of the human race.

"In labor's view the ultimate purpose of such a League is to create a common mind in the world, to make the nations conscious of the solidarity of their interests, and to enable them to perceive that the world is one, and not a number of separate countries divided by artificial frontiers. . . .

"Democracy stands at the cross-roads. Whether the path taken is the one that leads to a new social order giving freedom and security to all, or the path that leads to revolutionary struggles and a violent and stormy close to the story of Western civilization, depends very largely upon the fate of this project of a League of Nations. If we fail here we fail irretrievably. Wars more frightful than the present will waste the substance of our race, and we shall lose even the belief in the possibility of progress."

Back of all this expert opinion was the conviction of the millions of men who had fought at the front that the whole system which had permitted of the cataclysm in Europe was wrong and had to be reformed. They realized that the old system of secret alliances, of balance of power, of the stirring up of national hatreds which made war possible was a thing to be hated more than the enemy himself.

The men and officers knew that the social and political structure

of European society was wrong and their influence was strongly behind the forces that sought to bring about its reform. The hope of a League of Nations therefore that would make war impossible never received greater support than among the men who had faced death. They had no intention, if they could prevent it, of allowing their children and the generation yet to come to go into the hell of war through which they themselves had passed.

During the Peace Conference great criticism and in some places strong opposition took place in regard to the League of Nations' covenant. In the United States this was so strong that President Wilson returned to America to explain the plan and endeavour to formulate public opinion in favour of the project. In a speech in New York upon the subject President Wilson said in part:

"I do not know when I have been more impressed than by the conferences of the commission set up by the Conference of Peace to draw up a covenant for the League of Nations. The representatives of fourteen nations sat around that board—not young men, not men inexperienced in the politics of the world; and the inspiring influence of every meeting was the concurrence of purpose on the part of all those men to come to an agreement and an effective working agreement with regard to this League of the civilized world.

"There was a conviction in the whole impulse; there was conviction of more than one sort; there was the conviction that this thing ought to be done, and there was also the conviction that not a man there would venture to go home and say that he had not tried to do it.

"It is one of the agreements of this covenant that it is the friendly right of every nation a member of the League to call attention to anything that it thinks will disturb the peace of the world, no matter where that thing is occurring.

"There is no subject that may touch the peace of the world which is exempt from inquiry and discussion, and I think everybody here present will agree with me that Germany would never have gone to war if she had permitted the world to discuss the aggression upon Serbia for a single week.

"The British Foreign Office suggested, it pleaded, that there might be a day or two delay so that the representatives of the

nations of Europe could get together and discuss the possibilities of a settlement. Germany did not dare permit a day's discussion. You know that happened. So soon as the world realized that an outlaw was at large, the nations began one by one to draw together against her.

"We know for a certainty that if Germany had thought for a moment that Great Britain would go in with France and with Russia she never would have undertaken the enterprise and the League of Nations is meant as a notice to all outlaw nations that not only Great Britain, but the United States and the rest of the world, will go in to stop enterprises of that sort. And so the League of Nations is nothing more nor less than the covenant that the world will always maintain the standards which it has now vindicated by some of the most precious blood ever spilt.

"My friends, I wish you would reflect upon this proposition. The vision as to what is necessary for greater reforms has seldom come from the top in the nations of the world. It has come from the need and the aspiration and the self-assertion of great bodies of men who meant to be free. And I can explain some of the criticisms which have been levelled against this great enterprise only by the supposition that the men who utter the criticisms have never felt the great pulse of the heart of the world.

"And I am amazed—not alarmed but amazed—that there should be in some quarters such a comprehensive ignorance of the state of the world. These gentlemen do not know what the mind of men is just now. Everybody else does. I do not know where they have been closeted; I do not know by what influences they have been blinded; but I do know that they have been separated from the general currents of the thoughts of mankind.

"And I want to utter his solemn warning, not in the way of a threat; the forces of the world do not threaten, they operate. The great tides of the world do not give notice that they are going to rise and run. They rise in their majesty and overwhelming might, and those who stand in the way are overwhelmed. Now the heart of the world is awake, and the heart of the world must be satisfied.

"America's soldiers went overseas feeling they were sacredly bound to the realization of those ideals which their President had enunciated when the United States went into the war.

GERMANY AFTER THE WAR
Shaded portions indicate territory severed from German control by Peace Treaty

"There is another point which critics of the League had not observed.

"They not only have not observed the temper of the world but they have not even observed the temper of those splendid boys in khaki that they sent across the seas.

"And do you suppose," continued the President, "that having felt that crusading spirit of these youngsters, who went over there not to glorify America, but to serve their fellowmen, I am going to permit myself for one moment to slacken in my effort to be worthy of them and their cause? I do mean not to come back until 'it's over over there,' and it must not be over until the nations of the world are assured of the permanency of peace.

"I must say that I have been puzzled by some of the criticisms —not by the criticisms themselves; I can understand them perfectly, even when there was no foundation for them; but by the fact of the criticism. I cannot imagine how these gentlemen can live and not live in the atmosphere of the world. I cannot imagine how they can live and not be in contact with the events of the times, and I particularly cannot imagine how they can be Americans and set up a doctrine of careful selfishness, thought out to the last detail. I have heard no counsel of generosity in their criticism. I have heard no constructive suggestion. I have heard nothing except 'Will it not be dangerous to us to help the world?' It would be fatal to us not to help it.

"From being what I will venture to call the most formidable and the most powerful nation in the world we would of a sudden have become the most contemptible. So I did not need to be told, as I have been told, that the people of the United States would support this covenant. I am an American and I knew they would."

Of George Washington's warning of entangling alliances, President Wilson said that "the thing that he longed for was just what we are now about to supply—an arrangement which will disentangle all the alliances in the world."

The President said that criticisms of the League "do not make any impression on me," because "the sentiment of the country is proof against such narrowness and such selfishness as that."

"Now all the peoples of Europe are buoyed up in the hope that all the nations of the world will unite their moral and physical forces that right shall prevail.

"What would happen if America should fail the world of its hopes? All nations will be set up as hostile camps again, and the men at the Peace Conference will go home with their heads upon their breasts because they will have failed. We would leave on the peace table nothing but a modern 'scrap of paper.' "

The United States Senate refused to endorse the League of Nations' plan as requested by President Wilson and Congress was adjourned in the midst of a Republican filibuster in the Senate that succeeded in killing a long list of important measures.

The President then announced that he would return to Europe and remain till peace was signed.

In passing the revised covenant for the establishment of a League of Nations, the Allies fulfilled their promise to provide a means whereby it is hoped that a repetition of the horrors of the world war just concluded will be made impossible.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

The Canadian Army Medical Corps

In spite of the terrible methods and conditions of modern warfare, no army has ever been kept in such splendid health as the huge complicated organization which represented the British Empire. In so far as the Canadian Corps was concerned this was due to the ceaseless vigilance of the Canadian Army Medical Corps, supported by an efficient system of baths and laundries. The C. A. M. C. was modelled exactly after the system of the Royal Army Medical Corps. The work of the mobile laboratory and the strictly enforced regulations of the sanitary officers contributed largely to the health of the troops and their freedom from disease.

The C. A. M. C. was the result of the work of Brigadier-General Neilson, our first Canadian Surgeon-General, who organized the corps in 1896. The organization consisted of an elastic skeleton formation which could be expanded indefinitely to meet any requirements.

When war broke out the scheme of organization rapidly absorbed the members of the medical profession, students, and others who offered their services. The field ambulances and hospital units needed at once were quickly mobilized and sent overseas, while others, including some raised by universities, were equipped and sent overseas as rapidly as they could be utilized.

Few people realize what an enormous expansion of the C. A. M. C. the unexpected size of the Canadian Expeditionary Force and the heavy toll of casualties necessitated. The Canadian hospital accommodation in England, at first confined to a single hospital at Taplow, ultimately embraced thirty hospitals in the southeastern counties. The Orpington Hospital alone had forty-six wards and covered acres of ground.

Under the control of the C. A. M. C. in England there were stationary hospitals, convalescent hospitals, Red Cross hospitals, and special hospitals such as the Westcliffe Eye and Ear Hospital, a tuberculosis sanitarium at Stafford, and the Granville Canadian special hospital at Buxton for nervous disorders.

The whole organization in England for the first two and one-half years was under the control of the Director of Medical Services, Surgeon General-Carleton Jones, C.M.G. (Legion of Honor), to whose patient and untiring efforts the credit of its marvellous development in England was due. Later on he was succeeded by Surgeon-General Foster, C.B., who took hold of a fully developed going concern.

The medical service in each large training area was under an assistant director of medical services; in the smaller areas a deputy assistant director was in charge. There were in England field ambulances in training, sanitary section, advanced depots of medical stores and a mobile laboratory. The Canadian Army Medical Corps in England was not only a very large but a very complicated organization.

In France, apart from the field ambulances, casualty clearing stations, advanced depots of medical stores and mobile laboratory, there were only general and stationary hospitals.

No praise can be too high for the devotion to duty displayed by all ranks of the C. A. M. C. Stretcher bearers, orderlies, nurses and doctors worked sometimes for days on end, oftentimes under fire, and many were the deeds of bravery recorded and honours received by them. Canadian hospital units at the front and even base hospitals far from the firing line, such as those at Salonika and Etaples, were deliberately bombed by Hun aviators.

Canadian hospitals seeing service with the Imperial forces invariably earned the highest commendation from the British authorities for their efficiency and high quality of work.

In the Canadian Corps a corps laundry was inaugurated to replace the divisional laundries formerly in use. Its capacity was 40,000 pieces a day. The Canadian Corps laundry and bath-houses not only issued clean clothing but replaced lost and destroyed articles. This system was peculiar to the Canadian Corps. The Ordnance Department, under whose charge the bath-houses and laundry were, issued garments directly to the laundry and baths where the issues were to be made. Lost garments or those rendered unserviceable through wear and tear were replaced at once. With a reserve of clothing on hand it was quite a simple matter, when issuing summer for winter underclothes, to make the exchange at the baths. The operation of most of the baths in the British army

was undertaken by the sanitary officers in combination with the Ordnance Corps.

THE CANADIAN DENTAL CORPS

There would be little purpose in issuing certain of the army rations to men if their teeth were in such a bad state that they could not masticate it properly. Sound teeth are essential to good health and never more so than amid the hardships of active service. Men with bad teeth and therefore incapable of masticating army rations have always been rejected by army medical officers. It was therefore vital that there should be a dental system capable of undertaking elaborate and scientific dental work. The Canadian Army Dental Corps, co-operating with the C. A. M. C., not only put our men's teeth in good condition but maintained them in that condition.

In the field decayed and defective teeth were liable to cause more serious trouble than to the civilian at home. Cold and wet were almost certain to produce ulceration in teeth possessing dead nerves. Soldiers suffering from aching teeth or unable to masticate their food were of little use to the army until cured. The wastage therefore prevented by the million and a quarter dental operations performed by the Canadian Army Dental Corps was too obvious to require lengthy discussion.

There were dental clinics in all the Canadian hospitals in England. At Orpington Military Hospital there was a special clinic for men whose jaws had been badly shattered. The jaw was set and artificial teeth adjusted so that the patient's outlook on life was brightened by the prospect of escaping unsightly disfigurement and enjoying his meals once more.

AMBULANCES AND CLEARING STATIONS

Among the chiefs at British General Headquarters was the Director-General of Medical Services of the British army in the field. He and his deputy issued all the general orders affecting the health of the British army on the western front.

The casualty clearing stations and the mobile laboratories were under the D. M. S. of the army, who was responsible for the clearing of the hospitals by motor ambulance convoys and by hospital train.

There were normally three field ambulances to each division and one casualty clearing station.

The system which enabled a sick or wounded man to be removed from the front was simple enough. Each day the battalion medical officer, located in a dug-out in the trenches, perhaps, or in the cellar of a house not far behind the trenches, held a "sick parade" at his "regimental aid post." During a battle the wounded were collected by the regimental stretcher bearers and brought to the aid post.

Any soldier feeling unwell reported to the M. O. of the battalion who, if the trouble was a minor one, gave him some suitable medicine. If the man showed serious symptoms or was wounded he was sent back to the "advanced dressing station" which would probably be a mile or so behind the front line trenches, if possible in a house, and on a road accessible to motor ambulances.

If the man could walk he went back through the nearest communication trench; if unable to walk he was helped or carried back by the ambulance stretcher bearers to the dressing station.

Some of the dressing stations taking in wounded under shell fire were located in shell-proof dugouts. At many points light narrow-gauge railroads had been built which ran from the dressing stations right up to the trenches. On these railways little cars pushed by hand were used both for bringing out the wounded during a battle and for taking in food, water and other supplies.

The cases which accumulated at the advanced dressing station were given any further treatment required and evacuated by motor ambulance to the field ambulance proper.

From the field ambulance the sick and wounded were cleared by motor ambulance convoy to the casualty clearing station, or possibly in cases of tired or slightly shell-shocked officers and men, to the rest stations or convalescent hospitals, of which there were a number well behind the firing line.

At the casualty clearing station the men were checked over, their wounds re-dressed, operations performed, and all the work done necessary to enable the men to be passed on to the base hospital by hospital train or barge. These clearing stations, of which there were usually three or more in a town, could keep serious cases until it was deemed advisable to send them on.

While one clearing station was filling up and treating the

patients, the other would be sending all possible treated cases down the line. From the base hospitals near the sea the men were forwarded as soon as advisable by hospital ships for distribution among the hospitals of England.

While a battle was in progress the men passed through the system so rapidly that those wounded one morning were often in a hospital in England the next morning.

The medical officer, of course, was attached to the battalion, and went everywhere with it; under him were the battalion stretcher bearers who gathered up the wounded. The advanced dressing station was merely an advanced section of the field ambulance which itself was divided into three sections, each of which could operate independently according to the nature of the country. Each ambulance was self-contained, having its own transport, and by using tents could work in areas without houses or other shelter.

The casualty clearing station, on the other hand, having an established capacity of nearly six hundred beds, had much heavier equipment and was not supposed to be a mobile unit, though it was capable of moving with the aid of its two lorries by making repeated trips. Many of the casualty clearing stations were located in huts which could be torn down and moved forward and rebuilt by the engineers and construction units.

There was also in each division a sanitary section composed of one officer and twenty-five men whose function it was to keep an eye on the sanitation of the divisional area, report failure on the part of units to observe the established sanitary regulations, see that the incinerators were operated, have new sources of drinking water tested, look after the bath-houses on occasion, search for cases of typhoid fever, etc., among the civilian population, and, in general, make itself as useful as possible.

The British army regulations are such that each officer and man must be a sanitarian and must not only observe the regulations but see that others do the same; the principle underlying this system being that "if each before his doorstep swept the village would be clean." Consequently it was not left to the sanitary section to clean up a divisional area, but rather to report those responsible for not keeping it clean. In this way every man was made a responsible party, for if the officers of any unit saw that the regulations were enforced by each man, the unit would be a sanitary one.

Naturally as the battalion M. O. was directly connected with the field ambulance to which he sent his cases, he was most interested in the efficiency of that unit. Since the field ambulances were under the direct supervision of the A. D. M. S. of the division, the latter, during a battle, was found visiting these to see that they were operating smoothly and to see whether enough motor ambulances, stretchers, supplies or other necessities were being provided.

At the same time the D. M. S. of the army would be found visiting the casualty clearing stations, and seeing that the evacuation of the wounded by train was working smoothly.

The hospital trains were specially fitted up with beds, kitchens and dispensaries, and with nurses and a medical officer in charge.

The hospital barges of the ordinary flat-bottomed, square-ended, Dutch type were wide enough to allow of two rows of beds with an aisle down the middle. The medical officer's surgery and bedroom were at one end of the barge, while the nurses' quarters were at the other.

In the British army there were specialists of renown in medicine and surgery who were supposed to supervise the medical and surgical work of a certain given area. They travelled about, investigating everything that was of particular interest, acted as advisers, and handed on to field units any special information that had been discovered at home or in the field. The consulting surgeons were usually to be found during a battle operating where there was the greatest need of skilled surgery.

Besides the sanitary officer of each division there was a sanitary officer for each army, and a chief sanitary officer for the whole expeditionary force. These were all in touch with the sanitary adviser at the base and the authorities in England. Since, under war conditions, new developments were always taking place in medicine and sanitation, the knowledge gained of practical value filtered through to the army by these channels as well as through the scientific journals.

WARDING OFF EPIDEMICS

Those killed in battle have in all previous wars constituted but a small fraction of the dead. Disease and pestilence have always been responsible for the vast majority of deaths in any of the great wars of history. In the present great war 6.396,504 men

are known to have been killed. These figures are admittedly incomplete and the final total will probably indicate that approximately 10,000,000 men laid down their lives.

This is by no means the total loss due to the war, for millions of civilians have died in France, Belgium, Russia, Poland, Serbia, Germany and Austro-Hungry from over-work, starvation, diseases and Hun barbarities. Nor can the reckoning even be made of those who died from exposure and broken hearts. Every day at the present time thousands of helpless men, women and little children are dying somewhere in Europe and Asia from sheer starvation as a direct result of the devastations of war. In the years to come thousands of children who may survive the famine period, following the war, will die as a result of constitutional weaknesses brought on now by malnutrition.

Yet during the five years of war there have been no great epidemics of disease in the chief warring countries except in Serbia and Russia. Diseases, like typhus fever, typhoid fever, and cholera which devastated armies in former wars, practically played no part in reducing the strength of the armies. Science, which has done so much to make war more hideous, more brutal, and more devastating, through the development of new explosives, arms and poison gases, has succeeded in controlling the spread of almost every epidemic disease. Science, which has improved the methods of killing, has far more than offset the total losses by wonderful improvements in methods of saving life.

It is only when we see the results of an uncontrollable epidemic like influenza, which swept over the world at the close of the war, that we realize what we have been saved from in having been able to control most of the other epidemic diseases. Influenza is one of the few epidemic diseases which has, as yet, not been brought under control. Doubtless, like most other epidemic diseases, it will soon be curbed, but that time is not yet. It is only by comparisons that we realize what a terrible toll an uncontrollable disease can exact. It took four years of modern warfare to cause the deaths of 6,396,000 men at a total cost of $160,000,000,000, yet in the last three months of 1918, an epidemic of influenza, sweeping over the world, caused the death of about 8,000,000 people. The deaths in India alone have been estimated at 5,000,000; in the South Sea Islands people died in large numbers and had to be buried in piles.

In Mexico the deaths reached 450,000 and in the United States and Canada the total deaths must have been over 500,000. And all this in a period of three months.

With armies of millions of men crowded together in the field and with whole nations working at concert pitch to keep those armies fed and equipped, we can guess what would have happened had cholera, bubonic plague, typhoid fever, malaria, relapsing fever and typhus fever run riot as they did during former wars. The world would have been a great shambles and civilization would have been set back a century.

The history of war has always been a history of epidemics. The fact that in an army men are crowded together makes it easy for all communicable diseases, once introduced, to spread with great rapidity. And because soldiers are always associated with the civilian population, it means that such diseases are readily communicated from the army to the civilians, and from the civilians to the army. It is therefore apparent that during a war, disease, unless quickly checked, may run like wildfire through a country, and be disseminated far and wide by soldiers returning to and from their own homes or other distant places while on leave.

Advance is made in our knowledge of how diseases are spread and controlled, particularly through recent studies in bacteriology and immunity, have made it possible to keep communicable diseases in absolute subjection. The lack of epidemic disease in the army in the late war was one of the marvels of the age. This is particularly striking in view of our experiences in other recent wars. For example, in the Boer War the British losses through typhoid fever alone were 8,000 against 7,700 killed by bullets, shells and other agencies.

With some knowledge of sanitation and medicine it is easy to see how most epidemic diseases can be held in check. Put briefly, it means that the medical and sanitary organization must be such that the germs from an infected soldier are prevented from reaching any other soldier.

The methods employed were simple; the carrying out of the methods was oftentimes very difficult.

It was obviously essential to remove every suspected case of disease from the army as soon as possible after he had been diagnosed. This meant that the medical officers had to be always on

the lookout for symptoms of fever rash or other signs of disease among their men. In the British army this was one of the most important factors in the control of epidemics. A man suspected of having any communicable disease was instantly placed under quarantine until the diagnosis had been confirmed, after which he was removed from the army area altogether as a possible focus of infection. The wonderful record of the British army in its freedom from contagious disease proved that the methods employed were absolutely sound.

This was practically the only way of stamping out diseases such as measles and scarlet fever, which cannot be diagnosed by bacteriological methods.

Great Britain was fortunate above all other nations in that the army sent over to France at the beginning consisted of regular troops, perfectly equipped from the medical standpoint as well as in every other way. Efforts had been made for years to remove typhoid carriers from the regular army and the soldiers had practically all been vaccinated against smallpox and inoculated against typhoid fever.

As each new division was sent into the field it was completely equipped with sanitary squad, casualty clearing stations, field ambulances, water carts, disinfectors and necessary medical stores. Consequently as the army grew and expanded into a huge force it was thoroughly equipped with the apparatus necessary for caring for the sick and wounded and had the benefit of the experience acquired by those already in the field. In this way the British army differed from all our European Allies who upon general mobilization found themselves woefully lacking in medical equipment and personnel.

Realizing that the medical equipment of the British was complete; that the army had been sent into the field free from communicable diseases; that it had been vaccinated and inoculated against two of the most dreaded diseases, smallpox and typhoid fever, and that every re-enforcement subsequent sent out had been carefully freed from suspicious cases of disease, it will be readily understood that the British army began under most auspicious circumstances, and that thereafter its freedom from contagious disease depended to a great extent on the preventive measures adopted.

It was impossible, however, to prevent our soldiers billeted in France from occasionally contracting communicable diseases from the French civilian population, and it was obvious that as there were from three to five per cent of the soldiers uninoculated against typhoid fever, we were bound to get some cases of typhoid.

Besides this, unless further precautions were taken, the army would be susceptible to disease such as cholera, dysentery and the like should there be cases of these in the war zone.

And, since there might be some "carriers" and undiagnosed cases of disease among soldiers and civilians excreting disease germs, additional means were necessary to destroy such germs before they could reach other soldiers. This was the place where sanitation and hygiene stepped in, and it was in these matters that the army of Great Britain was unexcelled by any army in the field.

As water supplies were liable to be contaminated, it was the rule to sterilize all water used for drinking purposes, either by boiling, by the use of bisulphate of soda, or by chlorine. The chlorine method, suggested by the writer in 1909, was the one in general use in the British army, as it was in all the other allied armies, and made it possible to sterilize a pail or a barrel of water if necessary right in the trenches. Small tablets of hypo-chlorite of lime, each one capable of sterilizing a pail of water, were also ordered and issued to the first Canadian division, and proved useful.

The great bulk of the water supply, however, was sterilized directly in the water carts by adding one or two spoonsful of the dry chloride of lime to the partly filled water cart, the mixing being done by the addition of the rest of the water and by agitation during the trip back to the place where the cart was stationed.

In addition to this, large mobile filter units, after plans which I had draughted in 1914 and officially suggested in 1915 after experience in the field, were built and issued to all the British armies. These mobile filters were capable of filtering and sterilizing large quantities of water and delivering it to water carts or into stand pipes, ready to drink. A check was kept on the efficiency of the filtration and sterilization by the mobile field laboratories. Similar filters of a larger capacity were placed in barges and proved very useful in France and particularly in the campaign in Mesopotamia.

Dysentery and kindred intestinal diseases in the early campaign

in Mesopotamia had proved disastrous to the British army, greatly reduced its effective fighting strength and showed the necessity of such a method of protecting the army drinking water.

Dr. Hutchinson in his book, "The Doctor in War," says:

The English sanitarians have devised one of the most perfect machines for transforming any kind of water into a clear, safe, drinkable beverage that I have ever seen. It is based upon the chlorination method and consists of a group of tanks with an engine and purifying system (of filters) mounted upon a large motor truck. . . . The result is so absolutely perfect as to give one almost an uncanny sense of magic. The first machine I saw was doing a special "stunt" test. It had dropped its intake into a pool of filthy, pea-soup-coloured, stagnant water, covered with green scum, which had collected between two refuse heaps at the back of an abandoned factory. From its discharge pipe was flowing into a large tank a steady stream of clear, sparkling, nice-tasting water. To look at the water in the filthy pool and the clear stream rushing and sparkling into the tank, gave one a positive shock.

The motor weighs about three and a half tons, travels by its own power everywhere, can get under way inside of thirty minutes, and can transfer the vilest soup into pure drinking-water, at the rate of about a thousand gallons an hour. That is to say, one machine is capable of supplying an army of ten thousand men.

CHAPTER XXXIX

The Social Upheaval Following the War

The war shook society to its foundations, but the foundations remained solid because the foundations are in the hearts of humanity. It was a great thing to be alive during the period of national deliveries when new nations were being born and old illnesses were being cured. To the observer it was most interesting to see during the war period the levelling of social barriers, the evolution of industrial organizations, the tendency of capital to co-operate with labour. The conviction steadily grew among thinking people that there were no basic differences between workers of hand or brain, the differences were chiefly those due to the accident of environment and to education. In the trenches where all were on the same level, the chauffeur, the gardener, the carpenter showed up just as splendidly as the duke and the capitalist. And the truth became apparent as in the co-operation of the allied nations that co-operation was far better than antagonism.

Social forms and institutions eliminated for any period of time can never be wholly restored, and after the war it was inevitable that there should be greater demands from the workers, from those whose lives and property they had shown themselves willing to protect.

Consequently, just as the social and political structure had been shaken and modified by the war it was inevitable that the economic one should be even more disturbed. The war had created certain conditions in which men found greater comfort and ease through greater pay. They wanted that condition to continue and realized that only through the co-operation of labour, capital and the state in controlling the productive processes and eliminating the struggle between labour and capital could they obtain a greater share of the product of their labour.

A world-wide series of strikes began in which labour made very great demands, many of them equivalent to the virtual right to operate the industries.

Capital, already paying high wages, fought hard to retain what it had, though it was generally conceded that on account of the high cost of living workmen were not any better off than they had been with lower wages and when cost of living was low.

One of the results of the war was the immediate prominence gained by labour organizations. The workers had realized their power and were anxious to obtain all possible concessions while the time was opportune.

The International Labour Commission, consisting of fifteen members representing Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Cuba, Poland and Czechoslovakia, made public its report on April 3, 1919.

The report contained a draft convention creating a permanent organization for promoting international regulation of labour conditions, recommended an international labour conference and detailed labour terms to be inserted in the Peace Treaty. The preamble to the report read:

> Conditions of labour exist involving such injustice, hardship, and privation to large numbers of people as to produce unrest so great that the peace and harmony of the world is imperiled, and the improvement of those conditions is urgently requested, as, for example, by regulation of hours of work, including the establishment of a maximum working day and week, regulation of labour supply, prevention of unemployment, provision of an adequate living wage, protection of the worker against sickness, disease, and injury arising out of his employment, the protection of children and young persons and women, provision for old age and injury, protection of interests of workers when employed in other countries than their own, recognition of the principle of freedom of association, and organizing of technical, vocational, educational and other measures.

It was viewed as indispensable that a permanent labour organization to remedy industrial evils and injustice be established. The International Labour Conference is to meet at least once a year and to consist of four representatives from each state, including two representatives from the Government, one from the employers and one from the workers.

A clause incorporated in the report recognized the principle of self-determination in labour questions. This clause provided that "no recommendation or draft convention shall in any case be accepted or applied so as to diminish the protection already accorded to workers by the existing laws of any of the high con-

tracting parties." The intention of this clause was stated to be the safeguarding of legislation already in effect in any country which might be regarded by that country as better for the workers than that recommended by the Labour Bureau. The Labour Bureau definitely decided that the findings of the bureau must be supported by moral suasion in countries where special problems exist, rather than by invoking any force which the League of Nations might offer. Recommendations embodied in the report included the following:

Limitation was recommended of the hours of work in industry on the basis of eight hours per day and forty-eight hours per week, subject to exception in countries in which climatic conditions, imperfect development of industrial organization, or other special circumstances, render the industrial efficiency of the workers substantially different. The International Labour Conference was to recommend a basis approximately equivalent to the above for the adoption of such countries.

Great Britain was the first allied country after the war to experience labour unrest and a great reaction set in during which huge preparations were made for strikes. As usual in England, however, both parties were willing in the final showdown to compromise and no great strike occurred.

Great Britain's industrial crisis was adjusted without a strike by a conference between employers and employed at which far-reaching recommendations were agreed to and subsequently accepted by the Government to be enacted into law. It was the most serious situation that ever confronted the industries of the country, involving all the mining, engineering, machinist and transportation interests. Among the more important recommendations which the conference asked the Government to pledge themselves to carry out and which were assented to were the following:

1. The setting up of a permanent National Industrial Council of 400 representatives of employers and unions to advise the Government on industrial questions.
2. Enactment of a forty-eight-hour week, with certain necessary exceptions.
3. The establishment of national minimum wage rates.
4. Special payment for all overtime, where overtime is necessary.
5. Recognition of trade unions and employers' associations in industrial negotiations.

6. Unemployment pay should be more adequate, and should be extended to cover underemployment. Old-age pensions and sickness benefits should be more generous.

Unrest throughout the British Empire showed itself in the uprising in Egypt in which British soldiers and officials were killed. The Nationalist party showed that it had the backing of a large section of the community.

On the night of March 14th to 15th riots broke out in Cairo, Alexandria, and other Egyptian cities, while some formidable revolts took place at the towns up the Nile, where rail and telegraphic communication was broken. Much private and public property was destroyed. Investigation showed that the disturbances were due to the Egyptian Nationalist, or Independent, leaders acting on the instigation of agents of the Committee of Union and Progress, whose headquarters had been dispersed at Constantinople through the efforts of the Interallied Commission there. Many of these leaders were arrested, but not until several lives had been lost.

Serious disturbances also occurred in India and Afghanistan during April and May. Recent legislation incorporated in the Rowlatt acts and intended to combat seditious conspiracy was partially responsible for the trouble. Various riots occurred at Lahore, Bombay, Calcutta and elsewhere.

REVOLUTION IN GERMANY

Throughout Germany, even before the armistice, there were signs of revolution everywhere. The part that Bolshevism played in exciting the German people is now beginning to receive its due recognition. Dr. Cohin, Under-Secretary of State in the Department of Justice, has publicly admitted receiving money from the Bolshevist Ambassador to carry on propaganda work to further revolution in Germany.

General Hoffmann, former Chief of Staff of Germany's eastern army and signer of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, said in an interview that Germany was not beaten on the western front but by an upstart named Lenine. Making peace with Russia, he said, was suicide, though they did not know it at the time, for their victorious eastern army became infected with Bolshevism, while thousands of Bolshevists entered Germany and undermined its morale.

Towards the end of the Peace Conference, strikes and rumours of strikes, revolutions and rumors of revolutions poured from Germany. Hunger, unemployment, Bolshevist propaganda, delay in making peace and the breakdown of the national discipline, all played their part in bringing about disintegration in Germany.

In Berlin a serious attempt was made by the Spartacus group, under Dr. Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, to overthrow the Ebert Government and institute mob rule in Berlin. By a sudden stroke, designed to prevent the holding of the general election on January 19th, the Spartacans secured control of a number of the buildings in Berlin, including the postoffice and five newspaper offices. There was a great deal of street fighting in which a considerable number of people were killed, but the Ebert Government succeeded in maintaining the upper hand. Later on Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg were killed.

Serious riots occurred at Frankfort-on-the-Main on March 31st. A general strike occurred at Stuttgart of workers followed by one of the bourgeoise. Other strikes occurred in Berlin, Kastrop, Dortmend and elsewhere. In Bavaria the socialist government was having its own troubles, for Spartacans demanded its removal and the establishment of unbridled communism. On April 7th Bavaria was proclaimed a Soviet Republic by the Revolutionary Central Council at Munich, and everything was declared the property of the community.

The Nationalist Government of Berlin refused to recognize any but the Hoffmann Government of Bavaria and the latter carried on. At Munich the People's Commissioners Government was overthrown by the Communists and a new Central Council of ten was appointed, presided over by a bricklayer. At Wurzburg the second army declared for the Hoffmann Government and attacked the communists.

In Brunswick, Eichhorn, formerly the Chief of Police of Berlin, was a leading spirit among the Spartacans. Danzig was in the depths of an industrial strike with the object of affiliating with Russia. In Saxony the War Minister was thrown into the Elbe and shot, as he attempted to swim ashore, by wounded soldier patients.

The extraordinary situation was seen of three governments—the Constitutional Hoffmann Government, the Soviet and Com-

munist governments—contesting for Munich over a period of several days.

SECOND REVOLUTION IN HUNGARY

The Provisional Government of the Hungarian Republic, of which Count Karolyi was President, was overturned on Friday, March 21, 1919, by the Communist revolutionary element at Budapest under Russian Bolshevist leadership. President Karolyi handed over the reins of power to the Soviet leaders without a struggle, ascribing his act to the Allies' treatment of Hungary after the armistice.

The following view of the revolution and its personnel was given by Dr. Constantine Brown, a British correspondent, who had just returned from investigating conditions in Hungary and other East European countries, and who wrote on April 9th:

"What has happened is that, despairing of finding any other remedy, Karolyi turned Bolshevist in the hope of preserving his country intact. He connived at revolution, while to the outward Entente world he professed himself powerless to resist it. In Bela Kun, the present Foreign Commissary of the Hungarian Soviet Republic, and in Dr. Rakovsky, the renegade Rumanian and one-time German agent, he found two admirable accomplices. These are the two men with whom General Smuts discussed the basis of agreement in Budapest.

"Bela Kun is a man of education and a certain culture, and among the zealots who profess the anarchistic creed of Lenine and Trotzky would be classed as a moderate. His political outlook at present does not take him beyond the confines of Hungary. He proclaims that at present, as far as he is personally concerned, the rest of the world may be well content if he achieves by his own peculiar methods the complete political and social liberation of Hungary.

"Rakovsky, on the other hand, dreams of and works for the complete Soviet subjugation of Southeastern and Western Europe. He is pledged to carry the banner of Bolshevism in triumph from the Transylvania Alps to the Danube delta, and from Budapest to Paris. Radovsky was always a noted political firebrand and is unquestionably a whole-hogger. Born a Bulgarian, he became violently anti-Bulgarian when Bulgaria was

beaten in the Balkan war and his native town passed under the Rumanian flag.

"Arrested as a German spy, he was rescued from prison in Rumania by Russian revolutionary soldiers. Then he engineered the plot for removing the Rumanian King and his consort. It failed, so Rakovsky slipped over the Rumanian frontier and became Bolshevist High Commissionery at Odessa, and the Russian Soviet Government afterward appointed him its Minister to Hungary."

COMMUNIST PROCLAMATIONS

The new Government issued the following proclamation on March 22d:

The proletariat of Hungary from today has taken all power in its own hands. By the decision of the Paris Conference to occupy Hungary, the provisioning of revolutionary Hungary becomes utterly impossible. Under these circumstances the sole means open for the Hungarian Government is a dictatorship of the proletariat.

Legislative, executive and judicial authority will be exercised by a dictatorship of the Workers', Peasants' and Soldiers' Councils. The Revolutionary Government Council will begin forthwith work for the realization of communist socialism.

The council decrees the socialization of large estates, mines, big industries, banks and transport lines, declares complete solidarity with the Russian Soviet Government, and offers to contract an armed alliance with the proletariat of Russia.

A further proclamation, sent out by the new Government by wireless, invited the workmen and peasants of Bohemia, Rumania, Serbia and Croatia to form an armed alliance against the aristocracy, landowners and dynasties, and urged the workmen of Austria and Germany to follow the lead of Hungary in breaking off relations with the Paris Peace Conference.

Martial law was proclaimed. A fine of 5,000 crowns was fixed for the sale of alcoholic liquor and 10,000 crowns for drinking it. It was decided to abolish all titles of rank, to separate the church from the state, to dismiss all commissioners of the Karolyi Government and to invite Workmen's Councils to select directorates of four members each to replace them.

MISSION OF GENERAL SMUTS

The Entente Powers in session at Paris decided to send General Jan Christian Smuts to Budapest with power to negotiate a

new armistice and to reach an understanding, if possible, with the new Hungarian Government. General Smuts left Paris on April 2d after a consultation with the Council of Four, and on April 4th made certain proposals.

The Government replied to General Smuts, thanking him for his civility, but declaring that the conditions presented were inacceptable, except as an order to those who might be inclined to assume the Government of the country on such terms.

Dr. Benes, Foreign Minister of Czecho-Slovakia, issued the following statement in the London *Times:*

> The complete "Bolshevization" of Central Europe may be regarded as a real menace. At Berlin, in Saxony, and in Bavaria Spartacism is very dangerous. At Budapest Magyar Bolshevism has triumphed completely; at Vienna there is already a demand for imitation of Hungary. In my opinion Poland also will not entirely escape. Thus, bit by bit, Bohemia, the chief industrial country of Central Europe, is becoming threatened with complete isolation from Western Europe and with the loss of all chance of being revictualed by the Allies. Our working classes are numerous, and if they are not fed it is very probable that they might fall a prey to Bolshevism. That is the present situation of my country
>
> The national and social side of this Bolshevist movement is more interesting still. Those responsible for this war, the Germans, Austrians and Magyars, see today what the Peace Conference is preparing, and they see that its decisions will inevitably hit those who provoked the world war. Austria-Hungary and Turkey will be broken up and their oppressed peoples will be liberated. From the financial and economic point of view the authors of the war will be obliged to repair the damage they have caused. Thus justice overtakes them.
>
> To escape these consequences they cling to Bolshevism for salvation. They tell themselves they have nothing to lose, either from the territorial or the social point of view, because they are already ruined politically and economically. Hungary is the most striking example of this policy. Some time back Count Karolyi himself threatened the Allies that Hungary would submit to a Bolshevist régime if her territory were not left intact. Today she is executing this threat. She is blackmailing, as the Magyars have always done. It is clearly impossible to give way to this threat, more especially since tomorrow Germany will try to follow Hungary's example when she is called upon to sign the preliminary peace treaty.

EVENTS IN AUSTRIA

The exile of the house of Hapsburg-Lothringens, which had ruled for a thousand years was an occurrence full of significance,

for with it went all the rights and privileges of the royal family forever, together with eternal banishment.

Bolshevism did not seem to gain ground in German Austria in spite of desperate efforts of the new Soviet Republic in Hungary and the desperate food conditions prevailing in the country itself. Even the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils in Vienna decided against a Soviet Government in favour of a Socialist Republic.

The expulsion of the Hungarian agitators at the request of the Entente, the announcement that food supplies would be sent forthwith, and the decision of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils prevented a possible outbreak of Bolshevism.

BOLSHEVISM IN CANADA

When the armistice was signed the social and industrial organzations of the world appeared to have suddenly become dislocated. It was largely the result of the sudden reappearance of numberless reforms, which had been under consideration before the war, now demanding consideration and, backed up by labour, which realized its full strength and the power of its organization. Fear stalked openly through the world. Bolshevist propaganda had been sown broadcast over the face of the earth. Everywhere there was labour unrest, strikes and dissatisfaction. At first glance it appeared as though discharged soldiers were responsible for the trouble, but this was only the impression of those who spoke without investigation. The returned soldier had very clear ideas as to the necessity for the reorganization of society but his methods were not anarchistic. He believed in employing legal methods and bringing pressure to bear on governments, of which he had now absolutely no fear, in order to obtain legitimate reforms.

The people originally responsible for the spread of Bolshevist literature were foreigners and at first largely Russian. In Canada the press was full of references to troubles arising out of the activities of adherents to the Bolshevist idea. Careful investigation showed that the tentacles of Bolshevist propaganda were extending to the four quarters of the earth and that it had set itself the task of tearing to pieces the very fabric of modern life in every country under the sun.

In Canada a bold, systematic and dangerous effort was made to taint the community from coast to coast with the poisonous

philosophy. Dominion Order in Council of October 1, 1918, had placed the following societies in Canada under the ban:

Industrial Workers of the World,
Russian Social Democratic Party,
Russian Revolutionary Group,
Russian Social Revolutionists,
Russian Workers' Union,
Ukrainian Revolutionary Group,
Ukrainian Social Democratic Party,
Social Democratic Party,
Social Labour Party,
Group of Social Democrats of Bolsheviki,
Group of Social Democrats of Anarchists,
Workers' International Industrial Union,
Chinese Nationalist League,
Chinese Labour Association.

It was learned that specimens of all these organizations existed in Canada. It is hard to say where innocence ends and guilt begins in any social organization.

FAMINE AND ANARCHY

Mr. Hoover, who had been placed in charge of the feeding of the enemy nations, came to the conclusion, after investigation, that the spread of Bolshevism into Germany was due to hunger and could be prevented by a food barrage. This view of the subject was widely accepted in the United States. President Wilson, in urging the appropriation of $100,000,000 for food relief in Europe, said:

"Food relief is now the key to the whole European situation and to the solution of peace. Bolshevism is steadily advancing westward and poisoning Germany. It cannot be stopped by force, but it can be stopped by food."

An American correspondent in Paris wired: "There is no stronger ally of Bolshevism than starvation. Food, work and the prospect of normal social conditions are the prophylactic . . . anarchy and Bolshevism are the natural sequence of famine, disease and despair."

There is little doubt that famine leads to social anarchy, but

it must be remembered that anarchists flourish in the United States in labour organizations, which are composed of well-paid workers. It is not lack of food that makes all men rebellious, but rather the feeling that they are the catspaw of another class which by their labour they make wealthy. The feeling of the worker that he is being exploited and has no say, share or partnership in the system for which he toils and whose success he makes possible is at the root of much of labour trouble; it is the sense of injustice under which he smarts. Back of it all is the feeling that his earning power is not assured and that, at the whim of his employer or through some industrial condition or accident, he may be thrown out of work and his income cut off with the ensuing consequences of suffering and privation in his family.

A new feeling, tremendously fostered and forwarded by the war, had come into being. The worker had thoroughly realized his power through organization. He had been appealed to, deferred to and repeatedly told that he was the backbone of the nation, that but for him the Allies would have gone under. He knew that it was true. Women and men alike in all classes of society had slaved to make the soldier worker happy and comfortable. Everybody united in giving freely of their time and money to forward the great cause in which the worker was the chief participant.

With the cessation of war a great fear came upon the workers that their period of comfort had come to an end. During the war there had been plenty of work and everybody had made good wages, for which, it is true, they had often worked long hours. For the first time millions of people had been able to realize the comfort that could be obtained through the possession of a full purse. They dreaded going back to the lower wage and the periods of out-of-work.

It was natural then that they should band themselves together solidly to demand that pre-war conditions should never again obtain. They demanded war wages or better. They asked for shorter hours so that work would be spread over a longer period and eliminate sterile areas of idleness. They demanded the nationalization of coal mines, railroads and other public utilities, believing this to be both to their own best interest and that of the state, for company profits would thereby be eliminated and higher wages made possible to employees.

The strikers in Great Britain were not Bolshevists, though their agents and propaganda had doubtless something to do with fomenting agitations during the transition period from war to peace.

The origin of Bolshevism, as would be expected, is German, The stock phrase, "the dictatorship of the proletariat,"—or the absolute control of political power by the working classes,—is simply German socialism. Hatred of the bourgeoise, which we are accustomed to think of as peculiarly Russian, is part of the Marxian theory.

Bolshevism is merely another name for autocracy.

The fact that the rank and file is composed largely of the working classes obscures this fact. Lenine is as great an enemy of democracy as the Czar whom his followers murdered, and Trotzky has shown that he is a far greater danger to liberty than Hindenburg or Emperor Wilhelm. The tyranny of Bolshevism is far more terrible and more unscrupulous than the autocracy which it has displaced.

The very fact that the Bolshevist reformers believe in the dictatorship of the workers indicates the non-democratic nature of the programme. Proletariat means the poorest element among the city working classes, the men with no property and no capital except their hands.

It is their theory that as the sole creators of wealth they should exclusively control all political power. It is purely a class movement and is not endorsed by peasants who possess land of their own.

One simple fact will illustrate the argument that Bolshevism is a form of autocracy. When the Bolshevists got control in Russia they held an election. The election went against them so they dispersed the ensuing convention and carried on without reference to the will of the people at large. The Emperor Nicholas in his palmiest days could not excel that act of autocracy.

During the Peace Conference it was proposed that the Allies should invite Russian representatives to meet in a conference with them in an endeavour to straighten out the situation. The French Government objected and officially stated its opinion that Bolshevism was a permanent danger to peace and civilization. It also held that the Government of the Soviet was at war with the

Allies. The French Government felt justified in its attitude because in fighting against Bolshevism it felt it was endeavouring to eradicate a system based on nothing but disorder and crime. Besides, Russia owed France huge sums, and the Bolshevists proposed to repudiate the debt contracted by the Czarist Government.

The French Government stated that Bolshevism was the tyranny of a very small clique over the bulk of the nation. Therefore, by fighting Bolshevism they would be protecting Russia against a minority which also meant protecting civilization from the activity of Bolshevist propagandists throughout Europe who had already endeavoured to promote anarchy in neutral countries, such as Sweden, Spain and Switzerland.

In viewing such portents as the strikes throughout the world, the flying of red flags, the Spartacan revolts in Germany, the Mooney and Billings case in America, and labour demands in England, it would appear as though the present social order was about to undergo a thorough overhauling. Recognizing the trend of affairs many people had been engaged in elaborating and suggesting schemes which would satisfy the situation. Labour bodies and federations have drawn up and suggested reconstruction programmes which almost uniformly demand a voice and vote in industry, the establishment of a minimum wage scale, the placing of public utilities under Government control, progressively increased taxes of incomes, the discouraging of unused land, the prohibition of child labour, and the development of natural resources by the Government.

CHAPTER XL.

The Year of Victory

The great war ended on November 11, 1918, for, although the peace treaties had yet to be made, the terms of the armistice made it impossible for the Central Powers to resume hostilities. Desultory fighting continued at the end of the year in Russia, where small allied forces in the west and large Japanese forces in the far east had been forced to intervene by reason of the excesses of the Bolshevik government. In Transylvania and Galicia also the rival racial claims of Poles, Ruthenians, Ukrainians and Magyars provoked fresh hostilities, which, in addition to the spread of the revolutionary movement across Central Europe, after the Imperial Powers had collapsed, delayed a complete restoration of peace conditions.

The various armistices which brought the main fighting to a conclusion were granted in the following order:

Bulgaria, September 29th.

Turkey, October 30th.

Austria-Hungary, November 3d.

Germany, November 11th.

Each armistice imposed terms virtually those of unconditional surrender and, except in the case of Turkey, where the Enver Pasha Government had already disappeared, the overthrow of the monarchs of the defeated nations followed.

The principal abdications of the war were:

Czar Nicholas II of Russia, March 14, 1917.

King Constantine of Greece, June 11, 1917.

King Ferdinand of Bulgaria, October 6, 1918.

King Boris of Bulgaria, October 31, 1918.

Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany, November 10, 1918.

Kaiser Karl I of Austria, November 13, 1918.

The new Czecho-Slovak Republic, which had declared its independence on October 21st, was recognized by the Allies and became another belligerent.

The German menace to the Allies and the world never looked more terrible than in the first half of 1918 and its collapse within five months came with a most dramatic suddenness. This may be best visualized by the statement of a few facts.

March 21st.....Final German offensive began in France.
" 23d.....Paris bombarded by long-range gun.
April 14th.....Appointment of Marshal Foch as Allied Commander-in-Chief.
May 18th.....First daylight air raid on Cologne.
" 30th.....German armies reached the Marne.
June 17-20th.....Austrian offensive against Italy failed.
July 18th.....Franco-British counter-offensive began on the Marne.
September 13th.....Americans wipe out St. Mihiel salient.
" 16th.....Allied offensive in Serbia began.
" 19th.....General Allenby's main offensive in Palestine began.
" 22d.....Turkish armies destroyed on Armageddon Plain.
" 29th.....All Flanders Ridges recaptured.
October 9th.....Hindenburg line smashed; Cambrai taken.
" 17th.....Lille captured.
" 20th.....Belgian coast freed from German occupation.
November 1st.....Serbians re-enter Belgrade.
" 22d.....King Albert re-enters Brussels.
" 29th.....Montenegro united with Serbia.
December 1st.....British troops entered German territory.
" 1st.....King Ferdinand of Rumania re-entered Bucharest.
" 13th.....President Wilson landed in France.

Among other things, the war and the armistice have resulted in: The breaking up of the German and Austrian empires into a number of states, at present republican;

The restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France;

The reappearance, as a nation, of Poland;

The setting-up of a new Republic of Czecho-Slovakia and the enlargement of Serbia by the inclusion of Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina;

The union of the unredeemed territories to Italy.

The War at a Glance

1914

June 28—Assassinations of Archduke and Archduchess of Austria.
July 23—Austrian note to Germany Serbia.
July 28—Austria declared war on Serbia.
Aug. 1—Germany declared war on Russia.
Aug. 3—Germany declared war on France and Belgium.
Aug. 4—England declared war on Germany.
Aug. 6—Austria declared war on Russia. England landed troops in France.
Aug. 9—Serbia declared war on Germany.
Aug. 11—France declared war on Austria.
Aug. 12—England declared war on Austria.
Aug. 20—Brussels abandoned. Allied retreat begun.
Aug. 23—Japan declared war on Germany.
Aug. 26—Germans burned Louvain.
Aug. 28—Battle of Helgoland.
Aug. 31—Battle of Tannenburg.
Sept. 7—Battle of Marne began.
Oct. 9—Germans captured Antwerp.
Oct. 14—Canadian troops reach Plymouth.
Oct. 24—Germans driven out of Russia.
Oct. 30—Russia declared war on Turkey.
Nov. 1—Battle of Coronel.
Nov. 5—Britain declared war on Turkey.
Dec. 2—Belgrade evacuated.
Dec. 8—Battle of Falkland Islands.
Dec. 16—Bombardment of Hartlepool, Scarborough and Whitby.

1915.

Jan. 2—Russian invasion of Hungary began.
Jan. 24—Battle of Dogger Bank.
Feb. 4—Germany proclaimed British waters a war zone.
Feb. 10—Battle of Masurian Lakes.
Feb. 19—Anglo-French bombardment of Dardanelles forts began.
Mar. 10—Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
Mar. 18—*Irresistible*, *Ocean* and *Bouvet* sunk in Dardanelles.
Mar. 22—Austrians captured Przemysl.
Mar. 23—Allied troops landed at Gallipoli.
April 22—Germans first used poison gas at second battle of Ypres.
May 7—*Lusitania* sunk.
May 23—Italy declared war on Austria.
June 3—Russian defeat at Przemysl.
June 14—Russians lost 16,500 prisoners.
June 22—Russians evacuated Lemberg.
Aug. 4—Germans captured Warsaw.
Aug. 13—*Royal Edward* sunk.
Aug. 21—Italy declared war on Turkey.
Aug. 25—Germans captured Brest-Litovsk.
Sept. 25—Allies started Champagne drive.
Oct. 6—Allies landed at Salonika.
Oct. 12—Edith Cavell shot.
Oct. 14—Bulgaria declared war on Serbia.
Oct. 15-19—Italy, France, England and Russia declared war on Bulgaria.
Dec. 1—British army retreated to Kut-el-Amara.
Dec. 19—Allied troops began evacuation of Gallipoli.

1916

Jan. 8—Last Gallipoli positions evacuated.
Feb. 14—All single men in Britain called to colors.
Feb. 21—Germans began attack on Verdun.
Mar. 9-16—Germany and Austria declared war on Portugal.
April 24—Irish revolt began.
April 29—British troops at Kut-el-Amara surrendered.
May 31—Battle of Jutland.
June 5—Kitchener and staff drowned.
June 11—Great Russian victory over Austrians.
July 1—First Allied Somme drive began.
July 28—Captain Fryatt shot.
Aug. 27—Rumania declared war on Austria.
Oct. 18—German submarine raid off New York.
Oct. 22—Constanza, Rumania, captured.
Dec. 12—First German peace proposal.

1917

Jan. 31—Germany announced unrestricted submarine sinkings in prescribed zone.
Feb. 3—United States severed diplomatic relations with Germany.
Feb. 24—British recaptured Kut-el-Amara.
Mar. 11—British captured Bagdad.
Mar. 14—Russian revolution broke out.
April 6—United States declared war on Germany.
April 13—Canadians took Vimy Ridge.
April 16—French victory in Champagne.
May 12—British broke Hindenburg line.
May 14—Italians crossed the Isonzo.
May 18—United States first draft called up.
May 24—First United States combatants arrived in France.
June 27—First United States Contingent arrived in France.
Aug. 1—Pope appealed for peace.
Aug. 2—General Russian retreat began.
Sept. 3—Germans captured Riga.
Sept. 16—Kerensky declared Russia a republic.
Oct. 4—British Flanders drive again.
Oct. 25—Italan defeat and retreat again.
Nov. 6—Passchendaele Ridge captured.
Nov. 8—Bolsheviki seizes Russian Government,

1917—*Continued*

Nov. 21—British drive on Cambrai began.
Dec. 3—Negotiations for Brest-Litovsk treaty began.
Dec. 6—Halifax disaster.
Dec. 10—British captured Jerusalem.
Dec. 11—United States declared war on Austria-Hungary.

1918

Feb. 7—*Tuscania* sunk.
Feb. 11—Bolsheviki declared war with Central Powers at an end.
Mar. 14—German troops occupied Odessa.
Mar. 21—Germans began drive in Picardy.
Mar. 28—Marshal Foch named Generalissimo.
April 1—Germans' new drive halted before Amiens.
April 23—British naval raid on Zeebrugge.
April 26—Germans captured Kemmel Hill.
May 27—Germans gained important victory between Soissons and Rheims.
June 19–23—Italians threw Austrians back across Piave.
July 10—Franco-British campaign in Albania commences.
July 18—Foch begins drive on Soissons—Rheims Salient.
Aug. 5—German armies reach Vesle River in retreat.
Aug. 8—Canadian troops co-operate in drive above Montdidier.
Aug. 14—Eimslie appointed command Canadian Siberian battalion.
Aug. 17—Germans retreat beyond Albert.
Aug. 21—British gain ten miles beyond Arras.
Aug. 27—Hindenburg line pierced.
Aug. 29—French take Noyon.
Aug. 30—Drocourt-Queant switch penetrated.
Aug. 31—Bailleul captured.
Sept. 1-5—Germans retreat in Flanders, abandoning Kemmel.
Sept. 12—Ex-Czarina of Russia and daughters reported murdered.
Sept. 12—Americans drive in St. Mihiel Salient.
Sept. 15—Austria asks for peace discussion.
Sept. 16—Wilson refuses Austria's suggestion.
Sept. 17—Allies began Balkan drive.
Sept. 26—Bulgaria asks for armistice.
Sept. 30—Bulgarian armistice officially confirmed. Bulgaria accepting Allies' terms.
Oct. 1—Peace demonstrations in Berlin.
Oct. 3—La Bassee captured.
Oct. 5—Chancellor Maximilian announces in Reichstag that he has asked President Wilson to forward to Allies Germany's plea for peace.
Oct. 7—Great gains by Allies on Western Front.
Oct. 8—President asks for evidences of German good faith.
Oct. 11—German retreat on Western Front continues.
Oct. 11—Germany announces Wilson's terms will be accepted.
Oct. 14—Socialist Congress at Munich demands Kaiser's abdication.
Oct. 15—British enter suburbs of Lille.
Oct. 16—Bruges and Zeebrugge fall.
Oct. 18—Canadians enter Doual.
Oct. 20—Germany orders U-boat warfare on passenger ships stopped.
Oct. 23—Wilson tells Germany he has transmitted her peace plea to Allies.
Oct. 25—Anglo-Italian drive begins.
Oct. 28—Turkey asks separate peace.
Oct. 30—Austria asks armistice.
Oct. 31—Turkish armistice begins. Dardanelles opened.
Nov. 1—Austrian revolt begins.
Nov. 2—10,000 Austrians captured.
Nov. 3—Austrian armistice terms announced.
Nov. 5—Lloyd George announces Germany must apply to Foch for peace.
Nov. 6—German armistice mission leaves Berlin for Western Front.
Nov. 7—Unconfirmed report Germany has accepted armistice terms.
Nov. 8—German mission given Allied terms with 72 hours to consider.
Nov. 10—Kaiser flees to Holland.
Nov. 11—Germany accepts Allies' armistice terms.
Nov. 14—Occupation of Alsace begun.
Nov. 16—Informal meetings of Allied peace representatives begin.
Nov. 18—Allied forces begin march into Germany. First meeting between British and German naval representatives to discuss German naval surrender. French enter Metz.
Nov. 19—Twenty German submarines surrender. King of Belgium enters Antwerp.
Nov. 20—First instalment of German Grand Fleet consisting of 71 vessels surrendered.
Nov. 21—King of Belgium enters Brussels.
Nov. 24—French enter Constantinople.
Nov. 24—General D'Esperey enters Constantinople.
Nov. 25—Allied Fleet enters Black Sea.
Nov. 30—Spartacus group seizes German wireless.
Dec. 3—Allies threaten occupation of Germany if full armistice terms are not complied with.
Dec. 19—Great welcome to British generals in London.
Dec. 26—Allies announce no extensive military occupation in Russia.

1919

April 25—First German peace delegates reach Versailles.
May 7—Peace Treaty handed to Germans.
June 16—Germans receive revised Peace Treaty.
June 28—Germans and Allies sign Peace Treaty at Versailles.

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